The Interaction of Psychological Factors on the use of Language Learning Strategies: A Study at High School Level in Pakistan

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Session 2011-2014

The Department of English

The Islamia University of Bahawalpur

The Interaction of Psychological Factors on the use of Language Learning Strategies: A Study at High School Level in Pakistan

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Submitted By:

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CERTIFICATE

It is hereby certified that the thesis titled ***"The Interaction of Psychological Factors on the use of Language Learning Strategies: A Study at High School Level in Pakistan"*** is based on original work carried out by Abdul Khaliq and that has not been previously presented for a higher degree. Akbar Ali has done his work under my direct supervision. He has fulfilled all the requirements and is qualified to submit the accompanying thesis according to the prescribed format for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in English.

Professor Dr. Mamuna Ghani
Supervisor

DECLARATION

I, Abdul Khaliq, hereby declare that the matter printed in this thesis is my original work and has been carried out under the supervision of Professor Dr. Mamuna Ghani, chairperson Department of English, The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan. This thesis does not contain any material that has been submitted for the award of any other degree in any other university, neither does this thesis contain any material published or written previously by any other person, except in the text for which due references are given.

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APPROVAL CERTIFICATE

It is certified that the PhD thesis of Abdul Khaliq titled ***"The Interaction of Psychological Factors on the use of Language Learning Strategies: A Study at High School Level in Pakistan"*** has been approved by the examining committee for the requirements of PhD Degree in English.

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Chairman: _____

Date : _____

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my parents;

Especially my mother who is no more in this world

But I always feel her around me.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Writing a PhD thesis was not an easy task for me to accomplish. Many people gave me a helping hand in one way or another to complete this uphill task. First of all, I thank God Almighty who blessed me with strength and forbearance to achieve my goal. First among the mortals is my supervisor Prof. Dr. Mamuna Ghani, whose encouraging and guiding soul has been like beacon for me during my long journey. Her caring personality led me at every step of my research. My mother! who is no more in this world but I always feel her around me. was the major source of inspiration for me during this tiring journey. My brothers and my sisters deserve no less gratitude who have been a big pushing factor for moving my work ahead. I am very thankful to Dr, Akbar Ali, Dr. Muhammad Abaid Ullah, and Dr. Hafiz Muhammad Athar who helped me a great deal .

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language.

ESL: English as a Second Language.

ESOL: program is therefore a program for teaching English to speakers of other languages in countries where English is the dominant language (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1996).

FLA: Foreign language anxiety.

FLCA: Foreign language Classroom anxiety.

L1: Mother tongue, native or first language, the language people acquire in their early childhood as it is spoken in their families.

L2: Second language, target language, or the language that an individual is learning in addition to his first language and any other languages he might know or might be learning.

LLS: Language learning strategy: ways in which learners try to work out the meanings and uses of words, rules of grammar, the use of language skills, and other aspects of the language they are learning (Oxford, 1990).

LS: Language skill the mode in which language is used. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are known as the four language skills (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1996).

SILL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, designed by Oxford (1990).

SLA: Second Language Acquisition, the process of developing some level of proficiency in a second or foreign language. Some use it to refer to second language learning, but Krashen and Terrell (1983) make a clear distinction between these two concepts. They argue that language acquisition is a subconscious process during which the individual

“picks” up the language and acquires implicit knowledge about it. Language learning, on the other hand, is conscious, and the learner develops explicit knowledge about the language.

TL: Target language a language that an individual is learning. It could be his second, third, or fourth, depending on how many languages he already knows.

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language.

ABSTRACT

The current research was originated by detecting the significance of the language learning strategies (LLS) with relation to the psychological factors. Previous research studies have shown language anxiety to be associated with broad based indices of language achievement. However, to date few researchers have empirically investigated the potential link between foreign language anxiety and language learning strategies. The objectives of current study were multifold. The first was to investigate which language learning strategies were frequently used by Pakistani high school students. The second was to discover the anxiety level of the participants and the third to find out the interaction of anxiety on the use of LLS. 476 high school students of grade 10^{th} belonging to 18 schools (Private, Public, Rural and Urban)of Bahawalpur (Pakistan). Strategy Inventory for language learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) was used as an instrument to explore the language learning strategies used. Foreign Language Class Room Anxiety scale (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986) was applied as an instrument for measuring the anxiety level of students. Data were analyzed using descriptive analyses, Pearson r correlation, Analysis of variance (ANOVA), T-Test and Cronbach's alpha. The result of the SILL phase of the research revealed the frequency of strategies used by Private, Public, Rural, Urban, Science, Non Science, Low Proficiency and High Proficiency students. A significant relationship was explored between language learning strategies use and class room anxiety. Interaction of anxiety on language learning strategies was explored under three classes of anxiety as communication anxiety, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation as stated by Horwitz et al. (1986). Students with medium level of communication anxiety used more memory and cognitive strategies than low and high communication anxiety level students. Students with low communication anxiety level used more cognitive strategies than medium and high communication anxiety level students, while students

with high communication anxiety level used more affective strategies than low communication anxiety level students. Students with low test anxiety level used more cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies than medium test anxiety level students. High fear of negative evaluation level students used more memory and affective strategies than low fear of negative evaluation level students. The thesis concludes by bringing together the key findings and suggestive areas for further research. In sum, this research provides English language teachers and curriculum planners with ample and validated information about LLS currently used by Pakistani high school students and interaction of anxiety level on LLS use.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Purpose and the Summary of the Chapter

The aim of the present research is to explore the interaction among the use of language learning strategies, the level of anxiety of the foreign language learners and the language aptitude among foreign language learners in Pakistani High Schools. The level of interaction & the significance of different methodologies in the following topics will be discussed at greater length in the ensuing pages of this Chapter. The status of language in Pakistan, Educational set up in Pakistan, The educational policy of Pakistan, Significance of English language in 21st century, difficulties of Pakistani English language learners, language learning strategies, factors affecting language learning, psychological factors, foreign language class room anxiety , the statement of the problems, the significance of the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions, hypothesis, the limitations & delimitations of the study are part of the present chapter.

1.2 The Status of the Population in Pakistan

The population of Pakistan is increasing day by day. Due to this rapid growth, various organizations have various estimates with reference to Pakistan's population. These different estimates are shown in table 1.1 which gives the estimates of World Bank (WB) United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), United Nations (UN) and Government of Pakistan from 2007 to 2030 which broadly vary in their assessments regarding the population of the country.

Table 1.1: Population Estimate of Pakistan by Different Agencies

Year	Population (in millions)		
		266	
2030		UN	
	169		185
2010	Govt. of Pakistan		UN
		166	
2008		World Bank	
	163	164	173
2007	World Bank	UNESCO	UNDP

Adopted from Lewis (2010), "Teaching and Learning in Pakistan: The Role of Language in Education"

According to the UNDP's (United Nations Development Program) Human development Index for 2009, Pakistan titles as one of the strumpets ranking country in the list of developing countries which is 141st in a list of 182 countries. Thus, a huge difference emerges between the rich and the poor with a Gini index of 31.2. This difference affects the education system as the existence of the two classes of society i.e. rich and the poor. The youth is the major part of the population of the country. One third of its population age comprises from 0-14; half of the population is below the age of twenty and two third is below the age of 31.

These facts regarding the population of the country have grave repercussions on the educational system as well. These very findings suggest that almost half of the population is school going which requires education according to the income of parents. The financial status of the parents also determines the health and food conditions of such school going population. Pakistan is a developing country where poor people are large in numbers. By reason of such pitiable conditions of the country, pessimistic participation in education is resulted. 66% population participation in education has been found at primary level while 32% at secondary level and mere 5% at tertiary level. On the other hand, official statistics state that just near 50% literacy rate in Pakistan is found including all those who can just know reading and writing.

1.3 Educational Setup in Pakistan

According to Coleman (2010), Pakistani educational system can be grouped under the four following heads:

1. private elite English medium schools
2. private non-elite 'English medium' schools
3. government Urdu medium schools
4. *dini madaris (madrasas)*

1.3.1 Elite Private English Medium Schools

These institutions are meant for the upper classes of the country. These educational institutions are small in numbers and only such classes can get admitted their children to such institutions. These institutions hire highly qualified teaching and even foreign faculty staff. Their dues can only meet with the upper classes of the country. Atchison College Lahore, IBM (Institute of Business and Management), LUMS (Lahore University of Management Sciences), GIKI (Ghulam Ishaq Khan Institute) and SPS (Sadiq Public School Bwp) etc are the examples of such institutions.

1.3.2 Non-elite Private 'English Medium' Schools

These institutions fulfill the educational needs more than half of the population of the country. Parents with reasonable income prefer such institutions. They use English as the medium of instruction only to attract the parents thus, hiding the facts. These schools mostly hire local and ordinary less qualified teaching staff with low salary.

1.3.3 Government Urdu Medium Schools

These schools are abundantly available in all over Pakistan. They have better qualified and trained teachers than that of the non-elite private 'English Medium' Schools. They offer free education and also provide free books and even offer scholarships to the

deserving, needy and to the brilliant students. Coleman (2010) opines that these schools are the only available option for the poor parents to opt these schools for their children. However, the outcome of these schools is not appreciable. Coleman (2010) views: “A child in a government school will require 1.5 years more to achieve what a child in year 3 in a private non-elite school has achieved. While the government school student needs a further 2.5 years to achieve what a year 3 pupil in a non-elite private school can do in English”.

1.3.4 Madrasas / Dini Madaris

Madras/Dini Madaras only offer Islamic education with the exceptions of few. These Madaras provide food and boarding facilities free of cost to their learners. Thus, they have special attraction for the learners belonging to poor families. They differ in their syllabi and affiliation. Further the educational policy of Pakistan 2009 will enable us to comprehend the educational strategy of the country.

1.4 The Education Policy of Pakistan 2009

The present education policy highlighted by the Ministry of Education articulates minor role about the languages in the educational system prevailing in the country. This policy does not explain clearly which language should be used for the educational purpose. However, National Education Policy stresses that a complete language policy should be encouraged in consultation with provincial governments and other stakeholders. This policy also suggests that from the very beginning of class I, English would be a compulsory part of it. Moreover, Urdu and one regional language should be a part of it at this very grade. However, the provinces have the right to opt any of the language for the medium of instructions up to grade fifth. After the fifth grade, English would be the medium of instruction. This policy will be valid till 2014 and from 2014 onwards. In all the classes, English will be used as a medium of instruction. The reason for introducing English

language from the school level is to achieve skill in English for getting attractive jobs so to decrease the gulf between the poor and the elite class.

English is the official language while Urdu is the national language of Pakistan. There are 72 languages spoken and understood in the country. Aero and Gowro has the smallest number of speakers (Aero has 150 and Gowro 200 speakers only) out of these 72 languages. On the other hand, Punjabi has the largest number of speakers of 61 million (Lewis, 2009). The table 1.2 shows seven major languages of Pakistan each at least has 1 million speakers.

Table 1.2: Major Languages Spoken in Pakistan, Number of Speakers with Percentages

No	Macrolanguage and language name	Speakers in (millions)	Percentage of Population
1	Lahnda (Western Panjabi, Mirpur Panjabi, Saraiki, Northern Hindko, Southern Hindko, Khetrani, Pahari-Potwari)	78.0	49.3
2	Pushto (Central Pashto, Northern Pashto, Southern Pashto)	18.19	12.0
3	Sindhi	18.15	11.7
4	Urdu	10.7	6.8
5	Baluchi (Eastern Balochi, Western Balochi, Southern Balochi)	5.7	3.6
6	Brahui	2.0	1.3
7	Farsi, Eastern	1.0	0.6
	Sub-total	**134.8**	**85.3**
	65 other languages	23.3	14.7
	Total	158.1	**100.0**

Adopted from Lewis (2009)

This table clears that Urdu which is the national language of Pakistan has only 6.8% native speakers while English which is the official language of the country has no native speakers. Punjabi is at the top of speakers with 49.3% while Pashtu is the second largest

language having 12% speakers. The 7 major languages comprise 85.3% of the population of the country while the remaining 14.7% speakers speak 65 minor languages (Lewis, 2009). Among these languages, Punjabi is the macro-language as it has more than one dialects or varieties (Lewis, 2009). These different dialects of Punjabi have been found in different regions, like Lahnda, Western Panjabi, Mirpur Panjabi, Saraiki, Northern Hindko Southern Hindko, Khetranin and Pahari-Potohari.

English language has been inherited from the British rulers. The British education policy builders choose that Urdu would be used as medium of instructions for the general masses while English for the elite class of Pakistan. Ghani (2002) utters her views about English as;

"English mere offers an opportunity for the success, to get higher education and prestigious jobs. It is the language of highly educated people and not the home language except in the upper classes of society where it is used as a status symbol" (Ghani, 2002).

This British duel policy was turmoil. English has no native speakers at all. Urdu is the national language thus the native languages speakers developed the feelings of alienation due to English as an official language or this language used as a medium of instruction. Thus, the native speakers remain alienated from their own culture. English is still a compulsory subject till graduation in Pakistan just for the examination purpose. Being the language of competitive and other examinations, it has no practical value.

According to Shamim (2008), another cause is the 'ritualised' manner of teaching English in Pakistan. In her ethnographic study of Pakistani English language education, she observed that the teachers make a distinction between 'doing a lesson' and 'doing grammar'. 'Doing a lesson consists of the following steps:

a. The given lesson is read aloud by the teacher or pupils

b. Teacher explains the lesson in the local language

c. The meanings of unfamiliar words are given in English, Urdu or a local language

d. Students write follow-up exercises in their notebooks. (Shamim, 2008).

'Doing a grammar' class also follows same steps. Such a method does not improve speaking and listening skills. It also falls short to extend students' critical reading and thinking skills. Besides this, teachers themselves do not have adequate competence in English language. That is why, they use grammar translation method to teach English language.

After partition imposed language policy of the English using Urdu and English in the country still prevails. It has growth its roots into academic, official and social doings of the country. At present, English language guarantees the person of his distinguished class. While a person who does not has the mastery over English language cannot enjoy the status of respected class. White-collar jobs are offered to those who have mastery over English language and its skills.

Despite of the immense usage of English language in the country, it is still a foreign language for its learners. "There is often a lack of opportunity for beyond-the-classroom interaction in school foreign language programs. This very effect puts learners at significant disadvantage when they meet with the unavoidable psychological, linguistic and socio-cultural barriers in second language communication" (Savignon and PSysoyev, 2002). The same happens with Pakistani learners of English language confronting the same 'disadvantage.

Pakistan is a multilingual country where people have to learn many languages. It also provides great advantage as Bepsi Sidwha, the novelist, rightly says:

"Although I use Gujrati at home and am quite fluent in Urdu and comprehend Punjabi, English is the language I prefer to write in. Luckily, I dream and think in all four languages" Sidhwa (1993).

Rahman (2003) also experiences similar situation where he uses Pashto at home, Urdu he uses when he is out from his native city or moves to another province while he uses English for the academic purposes when he gets education from the higher institutions. He also knows Punjabi and Saraiki at least if he does not speak them. Four major languages have been used in the four provinces i.e. Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi and Balochi. Besides this, 50 other languages have also been spoken in different parts of the country. It is also noted that English is considered hallmark for career making as most of the competitive examinations are conducted in English language. Thus, English becomes the status symbol in the country.

According to Rahman, power is the principal feature which permits the users of a language to acquire more sources of gratification for the user of that language in the form of both tangible goods and intangible pleasures (Rahman, 2003, p.1). He squabbles that language is the main cause of employment without which one cannot enjoy power. Urdu being the national language of Pakistan is a very powerful tool of the bureaucracy. Muhajirs, who migrated to Pakistan during separation, spoke Urdu as their mother tongue (Rahman, 2003, p.2). The justification for the advantage given to Urdu is that it is a lingua franca of the country and is spoken throughout the country and is an emblem of national unity too.

By dint of the inception of British colonization, English was imposed upon the natives because of its powerful existence. In the past Mughal regime, Urdu began gradually to get upper hand over Persian. After independence, Urdu was declared as the national language and it was thought that at proper time it would be replaced English. According to Rahman, it is not the real policy of the ruling class to defy this change which can be seen in the elite's patronage of English in the name of competence and modernisation (Rahman p.4).In fact English is getting its importance with the passage of time in all over the world.

The factors on which the building of English language is built are discussed in details as under.

1.5 Significance of English Language in 21st Century

The spread of English language in the twenty first century has been phenomenal. The number of speakers in English has increased tenfold since 1900. Rough estimate indicates that the number of English speakers is between seven hundred million to one billion (Pennycook, 1994). The rise of English language has been a matter of much debate in socio-linguistic circles. It is clear from circumstantial evidence that within a decade or so, the number of people who speak English as a Second Language will exceed the number of native language speakers (Graddol, 1997). The full implications of this spread of English in the field of education are best understood in terms of second or foreign language instructions. Research into English in primary and secondary education and the use of English as a medium of instructions as well as the teaching of English as an additional language show clearly that at present there is a great demand for English language instructors, and this demand will continue to grow in the future (UNESCO Statistical Year Book, 1974; Graddol 1997). It also suggests that the highest number of courses offered in second or foreign languages around the world is in English. In many parts of the world, English is regarded as the language of power, prosperity, pride &prestige. In many countries English has become implicated in social and economic mechanisms that structural inequality, linking poverty not only with region, class, gender and ethnicity but also with access to the lingua franca of the global elite. In post-colonial countries like India and Pakistan, English medium schools provide one of the mechanisms of distributing social and economic power. Parents and children in these countries often see English medium education as a means to economic success and obtaining education at master's or doctoral level as a matter of prestige & pride. It is also argued that where teachers themselves are not

fully proficient in the English language and are not aware of the full implications of teaching English as a second language, there is a danger of students being condemned to a second rate education.

Many languages such as Chinese, Italian and French are also getting significance and popularity but English is the most widely used language all over the world. In fact, English is the principle language used in companies from different countries of the world. And it has become the first need at the time of finding a job inside or outside of any country and most of the research literature is available and research work on any topic in the world is conducted in English. Therefore, people should think about learning English language before any other language. English is a global language and can help people to become better professionals and have better skills to talk with foreigners. We can categorize language skills in two categories i.e. the Receptive language which is the sufficiency of one's skill to understand what is being said; the Expressive language that is the skill of one's being able to express his ideas and thoughts in a clearly as to enable others to understand him/her fully. Therefore, the complete language proficiency plays a great role in the educational progress at master or doctoral level in the universities and in daily life.

English has got the global impact in the 21st Century and it should be learned by everyone. It is getting a strong position in the whole world. Moreover, people who want to be better in professional life in the world must also learn English language.

English language is one of the most widely used languages of the world. It serves as the medium of communication for international trade, diplomacy and scientific research. It continues to occupy a position of eminence in our society as well. It is one of the important subjects of study at all levels of school education and continues to be taught up to the graduation level as a compulsory subject in Pakistan. The significance of learning English language mainly rests on a few major points: firstly, it has become a lingua franca;

secondly, most of the developments in the field of science and technology have been published in English language; thirdly, it can be used as a tool by the job hunters to seek employment anywhere in the world and; lastly, most of the literature in the world, whatever its topic may be, is available in this language.

1.6 Difficulties of Pakistani English Language Learners

Pakistan is a multilingual country. Here, English language learners face numerous problems in language learning. The major problem is that there is no language exposure. As four language skills like, listening, reading, speaking and writing are necessary to learn English but we cannot find the capability of all these skills in a single teacher. In our educational institutions there are no creative activities with regard to English language learning. In addition to this, there is a lack of material related to enhance the language learning process. Majority of the teachers of English language are not professionals and, being the citizens of a poor country, their focus remains only to earn their livelihood. Resultantly, they lack required proficiency in writing and speaking in English Language and they cannot deliver the required skill to their students. The state of public schools in this regard is very alarming; it is such that most of the students cannot express their thoughts fluently and clearly even after getting a master degree in English language. The ability to express ones thoughts without prior preparation is, of course, a valuable asset. But even after spending 16 years in pursuit of a foreign language, a large number of learners do not have the competency to speak and write extemporaneously on a subject of even their own choice.

1.7 Need of Language Learning Strategies

In the process of language learning, learning strategies are increasingly attracting the interest of researchers because of their role to enhance the language learning competency.

Various methods have come in and gone out of fashion. But, language learning strategies are still having their importance in foreign language learning. Keeping in view the context of language learning, strategies can be suggested for the language learners to make the process of language learning fast and systematic. For this purpose we discuss the difficulties of Pakistani English language learners. The use of Language Learning Strategies (LLS) is a significant factor in the process of language learning. It is a difficult task to define and classify language learning strategies; however, many researchers have endeavoured to define it in their own ways. Wenden and Rubin (1987, p.7) talk about "the elusive nature of the term"; Ellis (1994, p.529) takes the concept as "fuzzy"; Cohen (1998, p.3) talks of "conflicting views" about LLS; while O Malley et al. (1985, p.22) assert that

"Learning, teaching and communication strategies are often interlaced in the discussions of language learning and are often applied to the same behavior." Detail definitions and classification of LLS will be discussed in proceeding chapter as it is the main factor affecting second language learning.

1.8 Factors Affecting Language Learning

Factors affecting language learning process consist of three aspects that are: the external environment, the learners' existing knowledge and internal mechanism. In the external environment, there are social factors which are the major determinant of the input that learners receive. For example, which variety of the target language the learner will be exposed to,and also the amount of exposure. Input provides the data for the language processing mechanism. With regard to age it has been found that younger learners are generally more successful than the older learners, possibly because their identity is less threatened by target language norms (Ellis, 1994). These external and internal factors are; intelligence, aptitude, personality motivation and attitude, learner preferences, learner beliefs and age of acquisition. There is also the role of language learning strategies in the

process of language learning. In addition to this, there are factors which affect the use of language learning strategies which are mentioned as following:

There are numbers of researches that have been conducted by various advocates of LLS, but all of them come to mixed conclusions. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) were not successful to find out the difference of LLS use between men and women.

Motivation, however, greatly influences the use of strategies that the language learners use. The greater the motivation, more the tendency for them to apply strategies in order for them to achieve 100% comprehension in the target language. For instance, the prosperous future that they have dreamt of might boost their spirit in learning a language. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) discovered that career choice had a major effect on reported language learning strategy use, a finding which they suggest may be the result of underlying motivation.

Studies have provided evidence that age does have an effect on LLS use. At some age, certain strategies are suitable to be used, but some are not. Studies on young children and learners aged over thirty portray a clear example of this issue. A study of young children (Wong-Fillmore, 1979) showed that cognitive and social strategies were very important. Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) conducted a study on bilingual learners and found that children developed receptive strategies (repetition and memorization) first. Then they developed strategies which allowed them to start and maintain interactions (e.g. attention getting and asking for clarification). Finally, they developed strategies for the identification and monitoring of grammatical errors. White (1993) studied LLS use by specific age groups of learners of French and Japanese in New Zealand and found that learners aged over thirty used metacognitive self-management strategies more than those who were younger.

Palmer and Goetz (1988) assert that learners' beliefs about language learning influence the way and the outcome of their learning. Beliefs about the effective ways to learn a second language, the language itself, the selection of strategies and beliefs of themselves play an important role in learning. For instance , someone who believes that she/he can totally master the language at the end of the day, tend to try out and use more strategies compared to ones who think that they will never ever be able to master the language no matter what they do.

The results of the studies which have investigated the relationship between language proficiency and LLS use indicate that high proficient learners use greater and wider variety of LLS. For example: O'Malley et al. (1985a) found that ESL school beginners reported using more strategies than the students from the intermediate level.

1.9 Psychological Factors

Psychological factors play an important role in a learner´s success in acquiring and using a second language. A learner is simultaneously an individual and a member of a group. Psychological factors can be divided into two categories - affective or emotional, and cognitive. Although, there is not a clear cut difference between affective and cognitive factors. The mastery of a language creates an affective or emotional response like enjoyment or pride etc. in the students. The work of mastering a language (a second language) can also be considered cognitive process. The teachers need to be aware of all these factors and should work with students in order to help them promote their learning.

The affective sphere of influence is the point through which individuals become conscious of their situation, act in response to it with feelings, and proceed according to them. Some of these feelings are: self-esteem, empathy, motivation, attitudes and anxiety (Martos & Rosa María, 2004). A large part of a person´s feelings revolve around the way that person feels about himself/herself. According to Schumann, there are three aspects of

self-esteem: Global (overall assessment of one´s worth) Specific (self-evaluation in various life situations, e.g., at work, and in individual characteristics, such as personality and intelligence) Task (self-evaluation in particular tasks) It is unclear that high self-esteem causes language success, but teachers should encourage students to feel proud of their successes and abilities, because they may facilitate language learning.

a) **Motivation:** It is the desire, sentiment or aspiration that causes one to perform in a certain manner. A variety of individual, socio-cultural and instructional aspects or impact of motivation. According to Gardner and Lambert, there are two types of motivation: Instrumental motivation (the need to acquire a language for a specific purpose, e.g., getting a job) Integrative motivation (the desire to become a member of the culture of the second language group) although it is hard to identify and study it, motivation is key to learning (Martos & Rosa Maria, 2004).

b) **Attitudes:** Attitudes play a critical role in learning a second language, for example English. Attitudes toward self, toward language, toward English-speaking people, and toward the teacher and the classroom environment affect students (Martos & Rosa Maria, 2004).

c) **Empathy:** It is the capacity to be aware of another´s feelings and to share them. It involves the connection of oneself with others. When learning a second language, listeners must understand the intentions and emotions of a speaker and attempt to comprehend the message (Martos & Rosa Maria, 2004).

d) **Anxiety:** When learning a second language can be seen as related to common feelings of apprehension that students experience in the classroom. Almost everyone feels some anxiety when learning, and having to execute in a new language multiple anxious feelings (Martos & Rosa Maria, 2004).

1.10 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Foreign language classroom anxiety is recognized as an affective factor in foreign language learning and normally discussed alongside other individual learner differences (Gardner & Maclntyre, 1992, 1993) which is considered to be a relatively new and developing area within foreign language research. In order to understand its nature, it is necessary to present an overview of anxiety in general and consider the different forms it may manifest in itself.

Different researchers have approached FLA from different characteristics. From a broader perspective, anxiety itself is defined by psychologists as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Spielberger, as cited in Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1991, p. 27). Literature usually differentiates between three types of anxiety: Trait anxiety, state anxiety & situational anxiety. Eysenck (1979) describes trait anxiety as personality characteristics. Speilberger (1983) takes state anxiety as an apprehension experiences at a specific moment in time. Maclntyre & Gardner (1991a) define situational anxiety as feelings experienced in a well-defined context.

Foreign Language Anxiety or more precisely, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) is considered to be a situational anxiety experienced in the well-defined situation of the foreign language classroom (Maclntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b, 1994). As such, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991) view FLCA as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (in Horwitz & Young, 1991, p.31) In all of these specifications, the context or situation dependent nature of foreign language anxiety is emphasized.

According to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1991), the possible causes of FLCA are communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Maclntyre and Gardner (1991a) describe FLCA stemming from the negative expectations in foreign language learning. On the other hand, Price (1991) and Piniel (2000) found classroom related factors to play a role in learners' developing FLCA.

Correlation studies have also sought to establish relationships between individual learner variables and FLA. (It must be noted however, that these relationships do not imply cause-effect relationships.) FLA has also been shown to correlate with age (Bailey, Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 2000), gender (Aida, 1994; Baker & Maclntyre, 2000), certain personality traits (such as perfectionism, Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002), and with negative self-perceptions (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 1999).

FLCA itself can have contradictory effects on language learning, and as such literature mentions both debilitating and facilitating types of anxiety, where debilitating anxiety poses an obstacle to language learning, whereas facilitating anxiety facilitates or fosters it. Although both types exist, studies have mostly concentrated on the former (Scovel, 1978 in Horwitz & Young, 1991, p.15-23; Maclntyre & Gardner, 1991a; 1991b)

In spite of the growing number of research dealing with FLCA, the majority of the studies mentioned above have involved the participation of mainly college or university students in a second language or a foreign language setting, in all cases, dealing with the acquisition of one foreign/second language (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1991; Horwitz & Young, 1991; Maclntyre & Gardner, 1994). In other words, there are limited numbers of studies involving secondary school students albeit it is in this milieu that most learners are compulsorily introduced to studying foreign languages. Something else that has been given little attention are the possible differences between the levels of FLCA of one person studying two foreign languages simultaneously (Deweale, 2005; Piniel, 2000; Rodriguez &

Abreu, 2003) Unfortunately, the results of the relatively few studies conducted to the issue proved to contradict each other, which calls even more so for further investigation.

1.11 The Statement of the Problem

English is taught as a compulsory subject in the vernacular medium schools throughout in Pakistan either from class 1 or class 6. It is also compulsory at Intermediate and Bachelor's level. This means that English language is taught in almost all the educational institutions in Pakistan starting from primary level up to the level of graduation but a large number of students remain unable to attain perfection in English language and consequently remain deficient to write effectively and speak fluently in English language. The purpose of a language learner being the satisfactory communication of thoughts and feelings and the one who can do it be safely deemed to be proficient in the said language. Admittedly, when we write or speak fluently a foreign language we are not conscious of its grammatical requirements, but, at the same time, we must acknowledge that this unconsciousness must be based on conscious knowledge of the grammatical requirement of the language. One thing dominantly strikes in the mind i.e. the causes of this imperfection. Perfection comes with practice and almost all the students in our country lacks this opportunity because they do not find any chance out of school/college hours to talk with other people in that particular language. This leads us to believe that acquisition of a certain language is a different proposition from writing or speaking it fluently. A number of methods of English language learning e.g. Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Audio-Lingual Method have been in practice in various institutions in the country but, knowingly or unknowingly, there has not been any use of language learning strategies by the language learners. It is, therefore, imperative to investigate various types of language learning strategies and to know the significance of LLS used in the process of language learning. Also, it is equally necessary to train language learners to use effective language

learning strategies to enhance the process of language learning and to find out the relation between the language learning strategy use and the psychological factor of anxiety. Research studies into language learning have given rise to several questions in relation to various factors (social, psychological) and language learning strategies as the reason for failure and success of language learning of the learners. Any negative experience of language learning results in the production of language anxiety which inhibits the language learning. There is the need to find out the effective language learning strategies and their correlation with language classroom anxiety of the students. It will facilitate the language learner through several psychological methods.

Noor Mohamadi,(2009) favoured the aspect of human being as having feelings in addition to thinking and memory power .Feelings reveal the role of factors like motivation, attitude ,anxiety etc. among these mentioned factors anxiety got consideration (Horwitz et al,1986). Aida (1994) observed foreign language anxiety as common among students in the context of language class room. Onwuegbuzie, (1999) suggests that high level of language anxiety has interaction with the foreign language learning. Researchers support the level of foreign anxiety and student's LLS area to be studied (Aida, 1994).The current study is a significant attempt to explore the interaction of psychological factor (anxiety) with LLS.

1.12 The Significance of the Study

Learning a second or foreign language (L2) has various aspects of its significance and they can be assessed in different ways. Firstly, in third world countries students from well off families learn it because they consider the knowledge of English language as a matter of pride& prestige for them. Secondly, it is a source of employment for those who need it because they can get jobs easily in educational institutions and on executive posts in government offices. Thirdly, English being an international language, proves to be a language of great significance for those who travel abroad who may be students or

businessmen or people from other walks of life. Fourthly, it is very important for research scholars because most of the material in whichever discipline they may be doing research they can find a lot of research material in English for their references. Lastly tourism is another area where, English being the only international language can be used as a means of communication. Its importance is of utmost significance. The present work is an attempt to investigate as to whether the students who use language learning strategies are more successful than those who do not use it, and to see if psychological differences affect the users of language learning strategies. Language learning strategies are increasingly attracting the interest of researchers because of their role to enhance learning. Various methods were fashioned according to the needs of the students which, with the passage of time, rendered obsolete. Therefore, we can conclude that many a method has come into fashion and gone out of fashion with the passage of time. The present study is of international significance and is aimed to search various psychological factors involved in the use of language learning strategies which, resultantly, will accelerate the language learning process. Language learning students all over the world will be benefited from the findings of the current study. They will be able to apply effective language learning strategies by controlling the psychological factors.

All Pakistani citizens try to learn and speak English. English is the medium of instruction for science and technology subjects. English language is compulsory up to graduation level. Now higher education of social sciences and humanities is in English medium. Many English words have become part and parcel of our daily communication. English is a prominent language of education in science, commerce subjects and in other governmental institutions. The knowledge of English language is of utmost importance to acquire the education of medical, commerce, engineering and other science subjects at higher level.

English language is the language of domains of powerful government bureaucracy, judiciary, military, education, commerce, media and moral aspirations etc. It is a status marker and social asset. IELTS scores, necessary for going abroad, have motivated the people especially, the youth to be well conversant in English language. The armed forces and the bureaucracy had selected English for themselves, contrary to the state's declared policy for curtailing its role and replacing it with Urdu the national language, as the official language. The penetration of English language at least in the urban area is visible everywhere in the country. English is used in different institutions in Pakistan including schools, institutions of higher education in public and private sectors.

English is the language of elite of Pakistan both formally in official communication, employment, education, in informal private conversation, entertainment and reading etc. It has established its significance in literary circles as well. We can say that English is even more entrenched in today's Pakistan than it was during British period in India.

In the five provinces of Pakistan several languages are used for communication purposes like Sindhi, Punjabi, Saraiki, Balochi, Pashto etc. while Urdu is the national language of Pakistan. From the above discussion, it can be concluded that English is very much important for those Pakistanis who aspire for rise in society. The present study related to language learning strategies and psychological variables will point out some important ways to adopt for the purpose of language learning to accelerate the process.

In local area of Bahawalpur, there are so many educational institutions having English medium study systems. Students and teachers are involved to apply various methods of English language learning but there is no extra-ordinary success in the process of language learning. The present study will be beneficial as to find out the psychological factors involved in the use of language learning strategies.

The present study is not only important for international, national or local language learning institutes but it will also be important on individual level. A language learner will be able to learn about the psychological factors in the use of language learning strategies. Good language learning strategies catalyze the learning process. Psychological factors play an important role in English language learning and the use of LLS. The present study on language learning strategies use and psychological factors will provide some important results to apply in learning institutes after improving and removing limitations of language learning strategies use. This research will focus on the factors which promote and maintain language learning in the academic programmes. The present study is important because, it would find out good language learning strategies and the role of psychological factors to enhance the English language learning. The present study is distinguished in the field of second language learning. It will enable instructors as well as learners to know about the role of psychological factors in the use of language learning strategies. As LLS have basic importance in depicting the keys of language learning success. In case of the language learning process on the base of human factors such as psychological characteristics of the students make them able to employ successful and unsuccessful language learning strategies. In the background of successful or unsuccessful L2 learning personal psychological factors have much more importance in the LLS choice.

The present study evaluates the interaction of language anxiety and choice of LLS to the potential practical applications of findings to reduce anxiety for the selection of good language learning strategies responsible to accelerate the language learning phenomenon.

1.13 The Objective of the Study

English language learning in students may be all owing to extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors. Self-esteem motivation attitude and anxiety play an important role in the use of language learning strategies. The frequently used language strategies by the

students for language learning, if employed to other institutions by instructors as well as students, will surely improve language proficiency. This study will also expose some of the shortcomings prevalent in their language learning practices and consequently weak areas will be highlighted to viable suggestions or propositions in the study. Most of the students, after doing their master in English medium of institutes, have no proficiency in English language. There may be the involvement, one of the purposes of the present research i.e. investigate the relationship between psychological variables and their effect on the use of language learning strategies. There are a lot of psychological factors that influence the language learning process of a learner; however, the objective of present study is to investigate the Psychological factor (Anxiety) and its relationship with the use of language learning strategies to enhance English language proficiency. As English language is a global language and is a compulsory component at all levels in Pakistani educational institutions, therefore, efforts are needed to improve the current English language situation in Pakistan. But unfortunately, decades old methods of grammar translation are still in vague all over the country. The current research may prove to be among the first steps in bringing about a change from traditional old methods towards a new approach in this regard.

Secondly, psychological factors and their effects have been shown on the use of language learning strategies; the present study is hoped to add some new dimensions to the current research scenario as it has taken anxiety of the psychological factors in this regard. There are much researched issues in the field of language learning strategies, but most of the studies on Language Learning Strategies have been conducted in the West (with the exception of a few studies in Japan , China and Iran). Pakistani society is much more different from the Western Social customs, religion and culture. The present study will expose the role of anxiety in the language learning and to remove anxiety in the process of language learning.

1.14 Research Questions

The main focus of the study is to investigate the use of language learning strategies by Pakistani high school students and the role of psychological factors. The main research will try to answer the following questions comprehensively.

1. Which language learning strategy or groups of strategies do students report using most frequently?
2. How does anxiety affect the use of language learning strategies?
3. Do the higher anxiety level students' LLS use differ from those who have lower anxiety level?
4. What are the variations in the extent of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between private and government school students?
5. What are the deviations in the extent of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between rural and urban high school students?
6. What are the differences in the extent of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between science and non-science students?

1.15 Hypotheses

In relation to above stated research questions following null hypotheses have been formulated. Question one and two are purely descriptive and have no hypotheses.

- There is no significant effect of anxiety on the use of LLS.
- There is no difference of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between private and government school students.
- There is no variation of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between urban and rural high school students.

- There is no difference of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between science and non-science high school students.

1.16 Limitations of the Study

The results of this research are potentially limited to only High school students of Pakistan, so it is risky to generalize the findings as EFL language learning strategies for other ethnic/age groups. Additionally, the surveys were administered to only schools of Tehsil Bahawalpur, and the results of this research cannot be entirely representative of all Pakistani schools' students and their English language learning strategies.

A questionnaire is a self-rating scale used by answered by the learners to measure their English proficiency, based on each particular learner's perceived self-assessment of his or her English proficiency. This self-rating method can be underestimated or overestimated in terms of a learner's personality or cultural perspectives. A possibility of imprecise measurement in the study must be considered.

1.17 Delimitations of the Study

Psychological factors are motivation, attitude, self-esteem, empathy and anxiety etc. To keep the study feasible and tangible in view of the time and limitations of requirement of the Ph.D thesis. The study is limited to only the interaction of anxiety with the language learning strategies of the students in Pakistani private, governmental, rural and school having science and non-science field of study at Bahawalpur district.

1.18 Conclusion

It was endeavored in the foregoing lines to discuss theoretically the possibilities of interaction and the psychological factors that is anxiety and language proficiency in a group of English Language learners as a foreign language in the high schools of Bahawalpur region in Pakistan. In this introductory chapter an attempt has been made to discuss in detail

Population of Pakistan, Types of educational system, the educational policy 2009 the significance of English language. The significance of the English language in 21st century, English language learning strategies, purpose of the study, statement of the problems, research questions and related hypothesis. Objective of the present research, importance of the study, Limitations and Delimitations. In the next chapter, the concepts of language learning strategies and Anxiety are discussed in detail, and prior research related to these two constructs is reviewed.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 The Purpose and the Summary of the Chapter

The purpose of this chapter is to present and explain the language learning strategies, its theories, take a survey of the exiting studies and establish a connection between the existing studies and the current study. The field is pretty rich in this respect and an excess of studies have been conducted in it. But it is also a fact that some of the variables have been much researched, like age, gender, proficiency mother tongue, social and economic status of the learner have been very little investigated . The present study is an endeavour to take up the interaction of psychological factors in the use of language learning strategies which are less investigated factors and less probed variables. As stated earlier, the hugeness in the area of LLS makes it nearly unmanageable to include all the pertinent studies, hence, an effort has been made to choice the most popular, related and possibly, contemporary studies into account.

2.2 Overview of Methods of Teaching English

In the field of teaching of foreign languages, many different approaches have been tried out. Scholars and teachers are constantly searching for the best way of teaching a foreign language to the learners.

No approach has, so far, been proved to be the most affective of all. However, every approach seems prone to favorability of the particular teacher or institute. For centuries, successful language learning has taken place, no matter whatever approach the individual language learner has adopted. Language learning is a complex phenomenon and in this regard various methods have been adopted in the past which would be discussed briefly in the present chapter to justify the position of LLS.

Before the Twentieth century, there were two language teaching approaches (Direct and Indirect approach). One approach was in the support of using speaking and understanding the foreign language and the other approach paid attention to analyzing the language or comprehending its grammatical rules (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Some methodologies were having the replication instead of learning rules to teach language i.e. learners repeat the use of restricted vocabulary after the teacher at the preliminary stage and they learn the language by practicing reading and speaking all the way through images by making it carry great weight.

Grammar-translation became, definitely, a recognized approach for teaching not only Latin but modern languages as well.

Following are teaching approaches to teaching languages in the Twentieth century :

i) The grammar-translation approach.

ii) The direct approach.

iii) The reading approach.

iv) The audio-lingual approach.

v) The communicative approach

vi) The situational approach.

vii) The structural approach.

viii) The bilingual approach.

ix) The silent way.

x) Suggestopedia

xi) The total physical response (TPR) method

Now, each of the above mentioned teaching methodologies are described and analyzed on their beneficial grounds to enhance students language learning and make the language process successful.

2.2.1 The Grammar-Translation Approach

The grammar-translation method which, according to Howatt (1984:131), was developed for use in secondary schools in the middle of the nineteenth century and was used up until as recently as the 1960s. The method has influenced foreign language teaching, which is also the case for Norway (Drew and Sørheim, 2004:19). This mode implies, in short, learning grammatical rules and reading texts in the target language and then translating them from the second language to the native language. There has been little focus on oral language e.g. listening and speaking, and the target language is taught in the mother tongue. The first grammar-translation course books were based on practical exercises, containing tasks of various kinds where translation into and out of the foreign language was typical (Howatt, 1984:132).

The approach arose in Germany at the end of the eighteenth century and it expanded quickly in the beginning of the nineteenth century. This was a time when foreign languages were gradually integrated into the secondary school curriculum as additional options to the classical languages that is Latin and Greek. As classical languages were no longer used for oral communication, the purpose of studying grammar and using dictionaries for translation was the first and the foremost task for the ability to interpret literature. These were self-studying methods and did not suit well for class teaching. To meet the new requirements of schools the basic framework of grammar and translation was adapted in order to make language learning easier (Howatt, 1984:131).

Howatt (1984:133) indicates that educational and social changes are one reason for the development of the grammar-translation method during the nineteenth century. A new system of public examinations was established in the 1850s with the purpose of setting academic standards. Accuracy was stressed and spoken language was neglected because the

ambition, according to Lightbown and Spada (1999:92), was to pass an examination and not use the language for everyday communication.

The focal point of the grammar-translation approach was to develop accuracy and not fluency. Foster and Skehan (1996), cited in Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998:33), define accuracy as "freedom from error". The grammar translation approach is according to Lightbown and Spada (1999:149) the world's most utilized method and many people master a second language perfectly based on this method of teaching. Some foreign language learners will succeed no matter what methods they have been exposed to. At the same time, according to Lightbown and Spada's own experience and research, the language learners of this method can sometimes feel frustration because they do not get the chance to practice their knowledge in meaningful situations, which may make them unable to communicate effectively in ordinary discussions.

Grammatical competence (which relates to the learner's knowledge of the vocabulary, phonology and rules of the language), discourse competence (which relates to the learner's ability to connect utterances into a meaningful whole), socio-linguistic competence (which relates to the learner's ability to use language appropriately) and strategic competence (which relates to a learner's ability to employ strategies to compensate for imperfect knowledge). "the communicative approach implicitly encourages learners to take greater responsibility for their own learning" (Oxford et al, 1989, p.33).

"This is a simply combination of the activities of grammar and translation" (Mackey 1965:153). Classical languages are taught through grammar-translation approach. Instructions are given in the student's native language and there is little use of target language. Students have to translate sentences from the target language into their native language. (Thompson, 1991; Liming, 2001). The limitations of this approach are that its users ignored oral, hearing, and writing skills. Reading is utmost important and students are

assigned to read text, teachers are not fluent in the target language. Therefore, the result of this approach is students' lack of ability to use the target language to communicate even after a number of years of study. This methodology is usually applied in Pakistani education system. Even the master degree holders in English subject are unable to communicate in the English language. The important goal of grammar-translation method is to make students able to translate one language to another language. But to some extent this translation method is considered as unnatural method.

2.2.2 The Direct Approach

The Reform Movement in the late nineteenth century, according to Howatt (1984:169), was unique in language teaching history. For a twenty-year long period, phoneticians and teachers collaborated in order to reach a mutual educational goal, internationally and interdisciplinary. The Direct Method was developed as a reaction against the grammar-translation method. Wilheim Viëtor, a 'Dozent' at University College Liverpool, argued that languages had to be learnt by practical use (Howatt, 1984:333). The Direct Method or Natural Method was also a result of Europeans immigrating to the United States. It was introduced into language schools by Lambert Sauveur and Miximilian Berlitz, two European immigrants with teaching backgrounds. They understood that immigrants needed to learn a language very quickly. Practical knowledge of English was necessary both for the immigrants and for the people left behind in Europe who wanted to keep in touch with families and friends in the USA. The Direct Method would make it easier for the immigrants to communicate with the native people. The focus was on oral language, and the mother tongue was not used.

With the Direct Method, which refers to the principle of creating a direct connection between second language words and phrases and the ideas and activities referred to, the use of the second language dominated as a communication means in the classroom (Simensen,

2007:28). The focus was on developing skills in listening and speaking and the practice of good pronunciation was important and, according to Simensen (2007:29), accuracy was essential in all aspects of the students' performance of the second language. Questions and explanations were presented in the target language and translation was not allowed (Drew and Sørheim, 2004:19). Speech was, and still is, regarded as more important than writing.

The new ideas were adopted by Danish and Norwegian linguists in the beginning of the 19th Century, but it took a long time before this teaching approach was used in the classroom. Whereas the Direct Method was largely dependent on the teacher's oral language skills, most Norwegian teachers before the 1970s had never visited an English-speaking country (Drew & Sørheim, 2004:20). Norwegian teachers of English before that time received their knowledge primarily from schools and universities, where communicative proficiency was less important than reading and writing and they therefore lacked fluency.

The direct approach was made-up as a response to the disappointment of the grammar-translation method to create learners who could communicate in the target language. The direct-method is one of the most widely known methods. It enjoyed immense popularity because it overcame the two major defects of the grammar-translation method. It substituted "language contact" for "grammar recitation" and "language use" for translation. According to Brown (1994), the direct approach paid attention on "active oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammatical rules" (p. 44). However, it became unworkable because very few teachers especially in the United States of America knew foreign languages well enough to teach them according to the direct approach. Moreover, the dialogues used in lessons were drafts that could significantly differ from what one would encounter in real

communication events. Stern (1983: 456) describes direct method characterize as the use of the target language as means of instruction. It is a natural method for language teaching.

For this methodology teachers had to be native speakers or dominion near-native fluency of the language they were teaching. This methodology is also applied in Pakistani formal setup.

2.2.3 The Reading Approach

In the reading approach, reading understanding is the only ability that is emphasized (Brown, 1994). In this method Grammar is taught to help reading comprehension. Vocabulary is forbidden at first and restricted to the most repeatedly come across and functional items.

Its condemnation aimed at opposition to the reading approach centers around its requirement of stress on the speaking and listening skills, and its restricted consideration of writing, which was mostly used throughout sentence translation. This methodology is not usual in Pakistani educational setup. Michael West realized that most Pakistanis necessitated only the approachable skills of English. Therefore, the reading method was well maintained by the psychological principle that listening and understanding is essential before speaking and writing.

2.2.4 The Audio-lingual Approach

In the 1960s, the audio-lingual method was introduced (Drew & Sørheim, 2004:20). This approach, which is based on behaviourist ideology that implies listening to the language and then trying to speak it through imitation and repeating. In audio-lingualism there is no specific grammar instruction; what is heard, is supposed to be memorized so that the students can utilize it spontaneously.

Behaviourism, which was dominant in the 1940s and 1950s (Lightbown and Spada,1999:9), has a strong focus on classical conditioning. This is a type of learning where an individual is trained to connect one stimulus with another and it is the result of a three stage procedure: stimulus, response and reinforcement (Harmer, 2001:68).

This kind of acquisition was applied to various methods of teaching, including language teaching. Behaviourists believed that the processes of imitation, practice, positive feedback and the creation of habits would result in language learning (Lightbown and Spada,1999:9). In the audio-lingual approach the basic principle was to listen to the language, then imitate the sounds and receive positive reinforcement, thus forming good habits of correct language use and accurate pronunciation. In order to form these habits audio-lingualism was solidly dependent on the use of language drills. According to Howatt (1984:225) this oral drill work often consisted of constructed, unimportant texts, for example short dialogues.

A central aspect in many audio-lingual courses was the language laboratory.

Harmer (2001:80) claims that this sort of patterned drilling has its drawbacks. Firstly, as the habit-forming drills are taken out of context, they do not have any communicative effect. Secondly, many theorists believe that making errors and learning from them is essential in foreign language acquisition. In Harmer's view audio-lingual methodology obstructs the students from sorting out new information by making mistakes. After all, it was discovered that errors were often an indication of language development.

Lightbown and Spada (1999:149) are convinced that both grammar translation and audio-lingual classes have produced highly competent second language learners. Still, according to their own studies, they claim that these methods "leave many learners frustrated and unable to participate in ordinary conversations" (Lightbown and Spada, 1999:150).

Audio-lingual method like the direct-method it is in contrast to grammar-translation method. This approach was developed in the United States during World War II as at that time there was need for the people to learn foreign languages rapidly for army purposes. The term audio-lingual was composed by Nelson Brooks (1964: 263). According to In Morhnann (1961: 88) the purpose of audio-lingual method teaching was to practice the language not only to converse about it. K. Chastain (1971) prescribes some important points in favour of this approach and he stressed to make it more responsive for the requirement of the improvement of students' language.

In Pakistani formal context where there is extremely shortage of native speaker this method has its utmost importance. It is also the demand of the teacher to have a pattern or model of language teaching so audio-lingual can favour his professional skill.

H.H. Stern (1983: 465-66) has summarized the offerings of audio-lingual methods to language teaching as under:

- Audio-lingual method was among the first theories recommended on the affirmed linguistics and psychological principles.
- It provides a chance for a large group of ordinary learners to have original pattern.
- Its stress is on syntactical progression and leads the development of simple technique for the separation of the language skills into pedagogical device.

2.2.5 The Communicative Approach

The communicative method was introduced in the 1960s as a substitute to the former structural methods. This new approach was inspired by the innatist theory of language acquisition, which was proposed by the linguist Noam Chomsky as a reaction to the behaviourist theory (Lightbown & Spada, 1999:15). Chomsky argues that children are biologically programmed for language as they are to the ability to walk and that they learn from imitating from the environment. Chomsky (1959) sees that "reinforcement, casual

observation, and natural inquisitiveness (coupled with a strong tendency to imitate)" are important factors as far as acquisition of language is concerned.

According to Harmer (2001:85) the communicative approach is closely associated to the notion that "language learning will take care of itself" by plentiful practice. The communicative method emphasizes interaction as both technique and purpose of learning a language. It is more important to produce language and communicate effectively than to be correct.

One scholar who has criticized this method is Lehmann (1999), who argues that the focus on communication and the pursuit of fluency in recent decades may have led to a neglect of accuracy. In her doctoral study of 182 tertiary Norwegian students Lehmann found that these students did not have a good enough command of the English language needed in higher education and working life even though they may imagine so themselves. One of the main reasons for this, Lehmann claims, is that English teaching in Norwegian schools has emphasized oral communication, leaving the students with little knowledge about literary devices and not focusing enough on their mistakes. Lehmann suggests that the diversity of the pupils' development should be reflected in the future curriculum. Although Lehmann is not in favour of going back to the old behaviouristic approach, she points at recent research, which has brought "conscious learning, based on form and accuracy back on the educational arena" (Lehmann, 1999:213). Lehmann believes that this approach used by competent teachers may lead to a development of the learners' own potential.

Still, Harmer (2001:86) states that the communicative approach is impossible to remove as communicative activities have taken root in classrooms all over the world.

The communicative approach raised through the work of anthropological linguists who observed language as mainly a scheme for communication (Celce-Murcia, 1996). Consequently, the goal of teaching a language is to build up the learner's talent to

communicate in that language and any language lessons should comprise not only linguistic composition, but also semantic ideas and social functions. Because of the stress on communication, teaching is frequently centered on group and couple of works in which students shift and settle meaning often in conditions where one or more than a few members lack pieces of information that another member knows. To develop the students' aptitude to use the target language in a variety of social situations, teachers may hold students in role-play and performance.

Communicative language learning basically was developed by Charles A. Curran who was a specialist in counseling in Lyola University Chicago. According to Curran (1972: 58) "the intellectual and factual process alone are regarded as the main intent of learning, to the neglect of the engagement and involvement of the self."

In communicative approach a speaker has a choice not only about what to say but also how to say it and he is given opportunities to develop strategies.

2.2.6 Situational Approach

Situational language teaching is widely used at the time of writing. A very large number of text books are based on it (Hubbard et al 1983:36). According to M.V. Kitchin (1974:293) this method has a high degree of students' involvement. He describes its stages as presentation, assimilation, activation, generalization, and reinforcement.

2.2.7 Structural Approach

This approach refers to form sentences in target language and this method tells what to teach and how to teach. According to professor C.S. Murphy structural is an approach not a method. This approach, to some extent, is applied in Pakistani language teaching setup.

2.2.8 Bilingual Approach

Bilingual method lays stress on speech. In bilingual method the teacher explains the meaning in mother tongue. William Mackey (1965) described selection, gradation, presentation, and repetition as for cardinal principles of all language teaching methodology. The bilingual method comprises of all these principles. This method is mostly observed in the Pakistani language teaching context.

2.2.9 The Silent Way

Students are taught from known to unknown. The teacher works with the students while the students work on the language. Learning involves transferring what one knows to new situations. The advantage of the silent way is that it combines a high degree of mental involvement and interest with the actual use of the language. The silent way is rare in Pakistani formal language teaching setup.

2.2.10 Suggestopedia

In the suggestopedic method of teaching the stress or focus shifts from actual teaching technique to the factors in the learning environment. According to Richards and Rogers (1986:140) the most peculiar characteristics of suggestopedia includes decoration, furniture, and arrangement of the classrooms. It also uses the music and the authoritative behaviour of the teachers. Music and movement reinforce the linguistics material. This teaching methodology is not in use into the Pakistani setup of teaching language.

2.2.11 The Total Physical Response (TPR) Method

The total physical response method was developed by James Asher. He observes successful adult's second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition. It is considered as a natural method. According to Richards and Rogers (1986:88) the TPR is derived mainly from three influential learning hypotheses; specific

innate bio programme, brain lateralization, and effective filter between the act of learning and what is to be learned.

From the above teaching approaches it is concluded that there is no perfect method of teaching English. All the methods have some advantages and disadvantages. No method can suit all the circumstances. The factors like the aims of teaching English, the class from which the study of English starts, the size of the class, the competence of the teacher, the age and capacity of the learner, availability of modern language teaching instruments play a great role in language learning. Above all language learning strategies are used by the language learners and instructors keeping in view the situations and available resources. So it is referring to the importance and usefulness of language learning strategies, which are the subject of the next section.

2.3 Language Learning Strategy

The very word strategy is derived from the ancient Greek word ‘strategia’ which means skill of war. It covers all the preparations, equipment and planning for the confrontation. With the passage of time this term got access in the field of education (Oxford, 1989, 90). Language learning strategies are perceived to be applicable in the field of learning acquisition. Many researchers have begun to apply strategies in the domain of language learning and teaching. The purpose is to facilitate the students to make them more successful learners. There appeared so many definition of language learning strategies from different researchers. There is little concurrence on the definition for language learning strategies and the best of which is still in the air. Learning strategies have been measured as potentially cognizant plans, learning procedure, learning techniques, consciously engaged operations, basic expertise, learning abilities, problem solving procedures, and language handing out strategies (Wendon, 1987).

Table 2.1: Definitions of learning strategies

Stern 1983	"In our view strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, learning techniques as term to refer to particular forms of observation learning behaviour."
Weinstein and Mayer 1985	"Learning strategies are the behaviours and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learners encoding process."
Chamot 1987	"Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions, that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistics and content area information."
Rubin 1987	"Learning strategies which contribute to the development of the language system which the learner constructs and affect learning directly."
Oxford 1989	"Language learning strategies are behaviours or actions which learners use to make language learning more successful self-directed and enjoyable."

Adopted from Ellis (2001)

Learning strategies are defined as behaviours or operations taken by the learners to facilitate learning, manage and storage received knowledge, and regain the information (O' Malley et al., 1985a; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Robin, 1987, 1994). This definition is concerning with the learner's receiving information and perception parts of learning strategies. The meaning of learning strategies was expanded by Oxford (1999) as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations(p.8). Such an extensive

view about the learning strategies by Oxford covers the Affective as well as social aspects of learning strategies.

Wenden (1986) gave her point of view and provided six decisive factors which can show the behaviour of using language learning strategies. Firstly, she took language learners as risk takers and tend to take specific actions which are considered as strategies. Secondly, these actions, sometime, can be apparent and sometime invisible. Third, strategy use is problem- oriented or goal-oriented to ease and congregate learning requirement. Fourth, language learning strategies are referred to as behaviours that contribute to learning directly or indirectly. It means that learners control, change, store, incoming knowledge or normalize learning is known as strategy which is directly related to language learning. On the other hand, how learner use the attained knowledge of language in different situations by the facilitation of LLS. Fifth, strategies are consciously applied, by the learner to new things in new context. Sixth, learning strategies are used automatically while in the process of language learning. It means learners are using learning strategies whether these are good strategies or not.

Stern (1992) gave the concept that learning strategies as "dependent on the assumption that learner consciously engaged in the activity to achieve certain goals and learning strategies can be regarded as broadly conceived intentional directions and learning techniques." (p. 261). The basic thing is that the learner is at ease by using learning strategies and get benefit of learning. Cohen (1998), Lee and Oxford (2008) were in support of the above mentioned idea of Stern. They were in favour that during the process of information taking, recalling, storing, and applying strategies, which help language learners to work more efficiently if strategies are selected consciously by the learners.

There are some other standardised definitions of LLS according to which language learning strategies are considered as particular measures which a learner can apply to ease

the process of learning and to make it more useful (Chamot, Darnhardt, El-Dinary and Robbins, 1999; Diaz-Rico, 2004).

Dornyei (2005) proposes a new view dealing with language learning strategies that is, learning strategies are extremely confusing; the details and the nature of language learning notion does not exist. Here the question arises if really any conscious involvement of the learner in the use of language learning strategies exists? Vygotsky's theory, self-regulation is "the process of planning, guiding, and monitoring one's own attention and behaviour" Oxford supported this view (2003).

The purpose of reviewing the definition of LLS is to ease the course of defining the language learning strategies in the research. From the above mentioned scholarly definitions of language learning strategies, we can conclude that LLS are techniques, tactics or methodology which expedite the process of language learning and make it easier, quicker and pleasing. By the use of LLS we perform specific tasks to solve particular type of problems. These strategies are used to compensate deficiencies in learning.

There are two different types of learning strategies: one LLS and second Skill Learning Strategies (SLS). Rubin (1981, p. 12) considers communication as "production tricks". On the other hand, Brown (1980, p.87) draws a clear-cut difference between learning strategies and communication strategies on the basis that "communication is the output modality and learning is the input modality". Stern (1983) illustrates communication strategies as learning strategies. According to him communication strategies can be useful for a learner to enhance a language.

Dornyei (1995, p.60) also recognizes that there is no clear difference between communication strategies and learning strategies at the closer glance. According to him the relationship between learning strategies and communication strategies are to some extent problematic.

All the above discussions show that language learning strategies maybe related to some other techniques but it has its own materialization. It also has its classification or taxonomy. The comprehension of which is very much important to conduct or understand research into LLS. Taxonomies by different scholars are mentioned as under;

2.4 Taxonomies of Language Learning Strategies

As far as the taxonomy of language learning strategies is concerned, it has been already affirmed that there have been different taxonomies recommended so far and no one is generally favoured. Many scholars (Wenden and Rubin 1987; O'Malley et al. 1985; Oxford 1990; Stern 1992; Ellis 1994, etc.) have attempted the classification of language learning strategies. As there is no radical variation among these classifications. Hence, in present study the classification presented by Rubin's (1987), Oxford's (1990), O'Malley's (1985), and Stern's (1992) will be touched. It is necessary to understand the classification of language learning strategies for conducting research on language learning strategies.

2.4.1 Rubin (1975, 1981) LLS Taxonomy

Rubin (1975: 41-50 1981: 117-131) classified language learning strategies into two main categories which consists of six general strategies directly affecting the learning scheme and two strategies indirectly interacting with the LL process. This classification is as under:

- Direct strategies
- Indirect strategies

The direct strategies are explanation/certification (asking for an example of about the use of new word and expression, conjecturing/inductive presumption (to guess the sentence concept through keywords), deductive reasoning (getting the idea by group of words and analogy relations), practice (to apply and practice new words in situations),

memorization (to remember new words in mind), monitoring (error analysis and correction of new words or expression).

On the other hand, direct strategies create chances of practice (to search native speaker or teacher for practice), production tricks (to produce variety of words and sounds using different schemes). Rubin's classification of LLS is mainly related to communication. O'Malley and his colleagues formulated their classification identifying twenty six strategies under the division of three major classes: Metacognitive (knowing and learning), Cognitive (specific to distinct learning and social activities). The metacognitive and cognitive classes are correlated. Rubin's direct and indirect strategies in this way the third category was a significant step in this research and that was social strategy. O'Malley and his colleague's research was based on Rigney's (1978) definition of LLS, according to which LLS are tactics which facilitate learning, maintenance, repossession, and performance.

2.4.2 Stern's Language Learning Strategy Classification (1975, 1983, 1992)

Stern (1975) gave ten strategies of good language learners. He extracted them from different sources;

- His interpretation of language knowledge and the three major problems of language learning.
- His experience as a teacher and learner.
- His review of the literature of language learning.

His ten language learning strategies which are used by a good language learner are as under:

i) Planning strategy

ii) Active strategy

iii) Empathetic strategy

iv) Experimental strategy

v) Formal strategy

vi) Semantic strategy

vii) Practice strategy

viii) Communication strategy

ix) Monitoring strategy

x) Internalisation strategy

In addition to the above good learner's strategies Stern (1992:262-266) has presented the following five main groups of language learning strategies:

- Management and Planning Strategies
- Cognitive Strategies
- Communicative - Experiential Strategies
- Interpersonal Strategies
- Affective Strategies

2.4.3 Oxford Taxonomy (1990)

A new classification presented by Oxford (1990) differentiates between direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are those which are directly involved in the process of language learning. On the other hand, indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy (1990; 151).

The direct strategies are those activities which are concerned in the direct use of the language. These are memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies, using memory strategies information about language are retrieved into memory setup. The use of cognitive strategies is concerned with the reception and production of meaning of new information. The compensation strategies are used to dominate over limitation in achieved knowledge.

Another classification known as indirect strategies are not directly involved in the use of language but support the process of language learning. Metacognitive strategies are concerned with organizations and evaluation in language learning. Affective strategies manage emotion and attitude during the process of language learning. Social strategies are use to develop cooperation with others and to ask questions. Oxford's (1990:17) taxonomy of language learning strategies into two categories and their demonstrations/symptoms are shown in the following:

2.4.3.1 Direct Strategies

I. Memory

A. Creating mental linkages

B. Applying images and sounds

C. Reviewing well

D. Employing action

II. Cognitive

A. Practising

B. Receiving and sending messages strategies

C. Analysing and reasoning

D. Creating structure for input and output

III. Compensation strategies

A. Guessing intelligently

B. Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

2.4.3.2 Indirect Strategies

I. Metacognitive Strategies

A. Centering your learning

B. Arranging and planning your learning

C. Evaluating your learning

II. Affective Strategies

A. Lowering your anxiety

B. Encouraging yourself

C. Taking your emotional temperature

III. Social Strategies

A. Asking questions

B. Cooperating with others

C. Emphathising with others

As far as the current research into language learning strategies use is concerned the above stated divisions of strategies and their details are important and handy to understand the present study.

2.4.4 Importance of Language Learning Strategies in Language Learning and Teaching

As the language learner gets new input of language and use language learning strategies in the formal or informal learning process, the use of this new information depends upon some techniques like LLS. Language learning strategies are good marker of how learners advance toward assignments or problems faced during the procedure of language learning. In other words language learning strategies which are used unconsciously and are invisible enable the teachers to have some indications about the

situation handling of their students and selecting of appropriate skills as to comprehend the new input in the classroom setup. According to Fedderholdt (1997:1), the language learner, who is capable of using an extensive variety of language learning strategies properly, can perk up his language skills in an improved way. Metacognitive strategies can get better organization of learning time, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation. Cognitive strategies comprise of using prior knowledge to assist in the solution of issues. Social and affective strategies are related to ask native speakers to cooperate and develop a relation for the development of target language. These strategies enable learner to control and ease his process of learning by establishing autonomy. According to Lessard-Clouston (1997:3) language learning strategies add to the improvement of the communicative proficiency of the learners. Language learning strategies are a wider notion which covers all tactics or techniques which a foreign language learner uses in learning the foreign language. Language teachers intending to enhancing the communicative competence of the learners and language learning should be acquainted with language learning strategies. According to Oxford (1990:1), language learning strategies "... are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed movement, which is essential for developing communicative competence." In addition to this, the language learning strategies' training makes students as better language learners. This training of language learning strategies use helps the learners to comprehend good language learning strategies. Lessard-Clouston (1997:3) states that good language learning strategies enable language teacher to be a good trainer. Research into the good language learning strategies exposed a number of encouraging strategies. Such strategies could also be used by bad language learners aiming to become more successful in language learning. If a bad language learner uses good language learning strategies and is unable to achieve the goal or success in the process of language learning, there is the possibility of some other factors behind this

failure. As good language learning strategies are not an assurance for the success of bad language learners' success, therefore, other factors may also play role in success.

2.5 Theories in Language Learning and Acquisition

A language consists of three constituents; sound, structure, and vocabulary. A person has learnt a foreign language when he has vocabulary knowledge of sound system of the foreign language and understandable production of it. There is a considerable difference between knowing a language and knowing about a language. Knowing a language means mastery of basic speech sounds, grammatical pattern and essential vocabulary. Following are some basic language learning theories:

i. Cognitive theory
ii. Behaviourist theory
iii. Mentalist theory
iv. Interactionist theory

2.5.1 Cognitive theory

Second language acquisition (SLA) refers to the hidden or aware procedures by which a language other than the mother tongue is learnt in an ordinary or tutored situation and the factors that influence those processes (Ellis, 1985, p. 6). Cognitive theory is founded on the process of human thoughts and actions in learning the language. It works on two basic philosophies, one is behaviour of and individual and second is the way of thinking and manner of using information about language (Shuell, 1986). In cognitive theory, individual language learning activities are considered as mental processes.

2.5.2 Behaviourist theory

B.F. Skinner (1969: p.133-157) and his colleagues believed that learning a language is not different from learning any other thing. It is a matter of habit which gives expression

to thoughts and feelings. Jesperson (2012) have the same point of view that language is a set of human habits. It is the claim of the behaviourist that a child learns by imitations and associations. It is their point of view that when a young child hears the word of biscuit every time he is given one. Soon he relates the word biscuit to the actual object. Then he imitates what he has heard. His parents become excited that he has learnt a new word, so his response is reinforced. Behaviourist theory is summarized as stimulus-response-reinforcement-repetition. According to Hadley (2001, pg. 57), there is no inborn preplanned programme of language learning.

B. F. Skinner attempted to argue that language in all its essentials could be and was taught to the young child by the same mechanism. So, from this point of view children can learn primarily by imitating the speech of their elders. Chomsky, on the other hand, argues that there must be some innate ability of language for all natural human languages. Chomsky opposed this theory on the grounds as it is unable to explain creativity of children language generation.

2.5.3 Mentalist theory

Noam Chomsky argues that there must be some innate core of abstract knowledge from which pre-specifies a framework for all natural human languages. He postulated that all normal human beings have inborn language acquisition device (LAD), which is responsible to develop language from innate set of principles which he called as the universal grammar. Chomsky's theory of transformational generative grammar attempts to explain how original utterances are produced from language user's inborn competence. According to Noam Chomsky (1968, p.84), behaviourist theory is unable to explain the complexities of generative grammar. So, he concluded "the creative aspect of language use, when investigated with care and respect for the facts, shows that current notions of habit and generalization, as determinants of behaviour or knowledge, are quite inadequate".

According to Chomsky, language is not a form of behaviour, it is an innate principles based system. According to Horwitz (2008), all human brain consists on language universals which are responsible for language acquisition. This theory does not talk about social factors or individual differences which affect language learning process.

2.5.4 Interactionist theory

This theory describes individual's actions within society. This theory was developed in the latter half of the Twentieth century and got a prominent place. In fact it is the process consisting on mutual adaptation between two or more individuals in the matter of communication. The purpose of social interaction is to communicate with the members of a community. It includes all language and mannerism. According to Erving Goffman interactionist theory emphasizes the importance of control in the social interaction.

2.6 Theories of Second Language Learning

For our general understanding, a theory of SLA (Second Language Acquisition) is merely an assortment of claims about the learning of a second language. "In a certain period of time, a theory of language teaching/learning might be dominant at one region but it might not be true to all regions and countries" (Wilkins, 2005).

According to H. Douglas Brown (2000, p.271), a theory of SLA might be observed as its 'extended definition'. To proceed further, Wilkins (2005) makes difference between two types of SLAs; the natural bilingual and the 'tutored' bilingual. The former is applied to that environment where more than one language is used and the learner learns another language besides his mother tongue. While in the latter, the learners learn another language as a part of their syllabus. This phenomenon is generally termed as the learning of foreign language (Wilkins 2005, p.271). In the present study, both these types of SLAs are presented as second language learning.

In his introduction to the 'theories of SLA' Brown (2005) portrays numerous factors like personality type, culture, learning discourse and communicative functions so as to involve in the way of second language learning. These interconnected factors suggest an integrated theory of SLA. Some well-known theories of SLA have been discussed further. These are given below.

2.6.1 Krashen's Monitor Model

With the coming of Krashen's Monitor Model of second language learning in 1977, much debate has been raised. Thus, various versions of this model have been offered till the coming of the last one in 1997. This model can be divided into five interrelated hypotheses:

2.6.1.1 Monitor Hypothesis

Monitor hypothesis presents that the input of the learner in a given second language is constantly monitored during the process of learning and the learner modifies his speech before the final articulation. The moderate users of the Monitor Hypothesis i.e. those look before them leap are the good learners. For the effectiveness of the Monitor Hypothesis, the learner also considers these three conditions.

a. The learner requires 'time' to comprehend the correct rule

b. The learner needs to be 'focused on form' or correctness

c. The learner necessitates to 'know the rule'.

2.6.1.2 Learning Acquisition Hypothesis

Learning of second language is as much the same as the acquisition of the child's first language. However, it requires comprehensive interaction with the target language (Krashen, 2002, p.1). It also found that error correction does not play any active role in the acquisition of child's language. Nevertheless, it plays an active role in conscious learning. This conscious learning is also done with the monitor only (Krashen p.2).

2.6.1.3 The Natural Order Hypothesis

The Natural Order Hypothesis also suggests that there is no significant difference between the learning of second language and the acquisition of the child's first language. Children learn language in a predictable order as proposed by Duley & Burt (1974b, 1976. They collected 14 morphemes and learnt that all the children learn those morphemes in the same order. They also found that the learning order of adults in those morphemes remains same. Thus, they concluded that there is not much significant difference between the learning of second language and the acquisition of the child's first language.

2.6.1.4 The Input Hypothesis

The input hypothesis recommends that an essential condition for the acquisition of language takes place when the learner comprehends input language a bit beyond his/her present level of understanding (Krashen, 1981).

He also sees that if a learner is at level *i*, the input he/she understands must contain *i*+1(p. 100). Moreover, he also noted that speaking should not be taught directly at the early stage. It should be taught when the learner has sufficient input (*i*+1).

2.6.1.5 The Affective Filter Hypothesis

This hypothesis throws light on the role of anxiety in the learning of second language. Anxiety appears in the form of fear, embarrassment and shyness. Krashen differentiates between two types of learners i.e. those having low affective filter i.e.faster learners and those having high affective filter i.e.slow learners. Learners with low affective filter have low rate of anxiety and high rate of learning than that of those learners who have high affective filter. There is no one who can escape from the critics. Same happens with Krashen as he has been criticised from the followings:

Gregg (1984) criticises that there is absence of evidence in using the terms conscious and unconscious and unconscious affecting the conscious knowledge.

Another critics McLaughlin (1978, 1990a), points out that there is no need to use the terms conscious and subconscious in second language learning because it is difficult to define these terms empirically.

Brown (2000) condemns him by dint of the very reason due to the presence of dichotomies in human behaviour to reach an end point in a range of learning the second language (Brown 2000, p.279).

Krashen made the distinction between acquiring and learning a language. Acquisition is a subconscious procedure which results in the knowledge of language; on the other hand, learning is a conscious process, the purpose of which is to know about the language. Acquiring a language is more flourishing and long lasting than language learning. According to Hadley (2001), the natural order hypothesis, the learning of grammatical structures pursue a knowable order when is usual and in the monitor hypothesis the learning is responsible for all kinds of second language utterances and smoothness.

Krashen (1981) proposed that learner had two processes available. One is exactly the same which operates in acquiring the first language, and the other one involves school instructions and language study. The former, he termed acquisition, the latter learning. Krashen theory evolved in the late 1970s, his theory is based on a set of five basic hypotheses; the acquisition learning hypotheses, the monitor hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the affective filter hypothesis. Krashen (1981) formulated a five point theory of language acquisition which became known as "The Monitor Model".

The five points are as under:

i. Both learning and acquisition play a part.

ii. The learning process monitors the output of the acquisition process.

iii. There is a natural hierarchy for all learners of any language as a second language.

iv. Acquisition of the element of new language depends on the availability of suitable models in the input at the right time in the learner's history of exposure to the language.

v. How much input becomes intake depends on certain emotional factors referred to as the affective filters mean a learner receive comprehensible input for language acquisition to take place. According to Munsell and Cart (1981), the inference of this theory that language learning is distinct from other kinds of learning (Hadley 2001). Krashen is unable to describe how affective filters enlarge and does not take description of individual differences.

2.6.2 Self-Directed Learning (SDL) Theory

SDL is defined as "a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating goals, identifying human and material resources, choosing and implementing learning strategies and evaluating learning outcomes" (Knowles, 1975, p. 18).

Various scholars have offered diverse viewpoints on SDL. A number of scholars observe SDL as a course of systematizing teaching (Harrison, 1978), centering their concentration on the stage of learner independence over the teaching procedure. Other scholars look self-direction as an individual characteristic (Guglielmino, 1977; Kasworm, 1988), with the learning purpose being to develop persons who can presuppose moral, emotional, and scholarly independence (Candy, 1991). Many models have been anticipated to comprehend SDL (e.g., Brockett and Hiemstra, 1991; Candy's model, 1991; Danis's model, 1992; Grow's model, 1991) to a further current one, Garrison's Three Dimensional

Model (1997) observes SDL as an individual characteristic as well as a learning procedure. SDL is proficient by the three dimensions acting together with each other: self-management, self-monitoring, and motivation. In formal situations, self-management engages learners' use of learning resources within the learning situation (Garrison, 1997).

2.7 Theoretical Construction for the present Study

Theoretical construct is the base of the current study i.e. students' use of LLS considering their type of strategies, frequency of use, types of school (private, public, rural & urban), field of education (science & non-science) and language proficiency (low, medium & high) based on their board examination result of 9^{th} class.

In Ellis' (1994) model a set of two main factors, first individual difference, second situational & social factors are to be considered as affecting learner's choice of learning strategies. Both factors are responsible for the use and frequency of LLS and L2 proficiency. Chamot (1984) related high level language proficiency with the greater use of LLS.

2.8 Types of Schools and Students Use of LLS

Various classifications of schools like, private, public, rural, urban might be an essential distinction linked to the choice of the LLS and their frequency of use. No experiential research has been carried out primarily to evaluate this variable and students use of LLS. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to explore this relationship whether or not the difference of schools affects on the LLS choice and frequency of use.

2.8.1 Students, Subjects (science & non-science) of Study and Their LLS Use

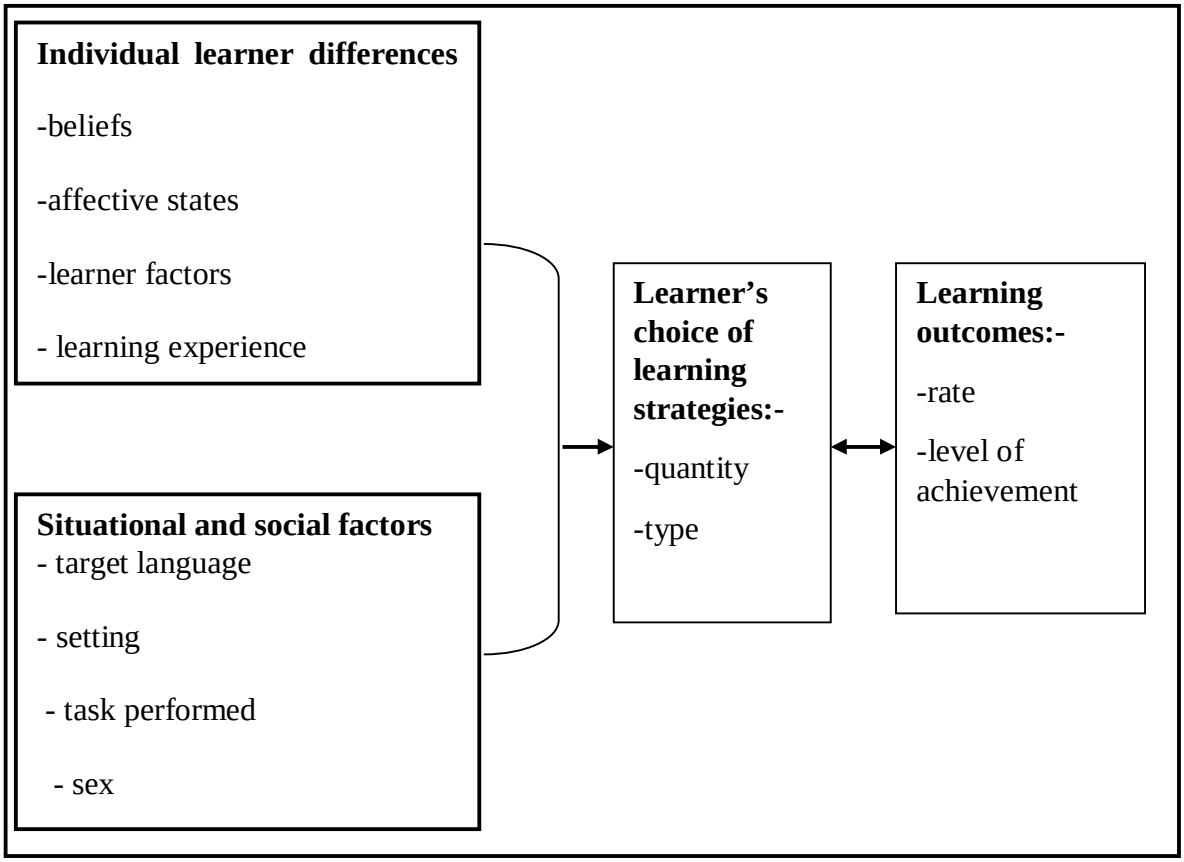
After completing elementary level, students in Pakistan are further classified in two different academic fields; one science (Physics, Chemistry, Biology etc) another arts (Civics, Home economics etc.). The latter is considered easier than the former. Mostly non-

science subjects are in Urdu medium of instruction. In the current study the researcher conducted the investigation to find out whether or not the field of academic subjects (science & non-science) affect their use of LLS.

2.9 Interaction of Psychological Factors (anxiety) on the Students Choice of LLS

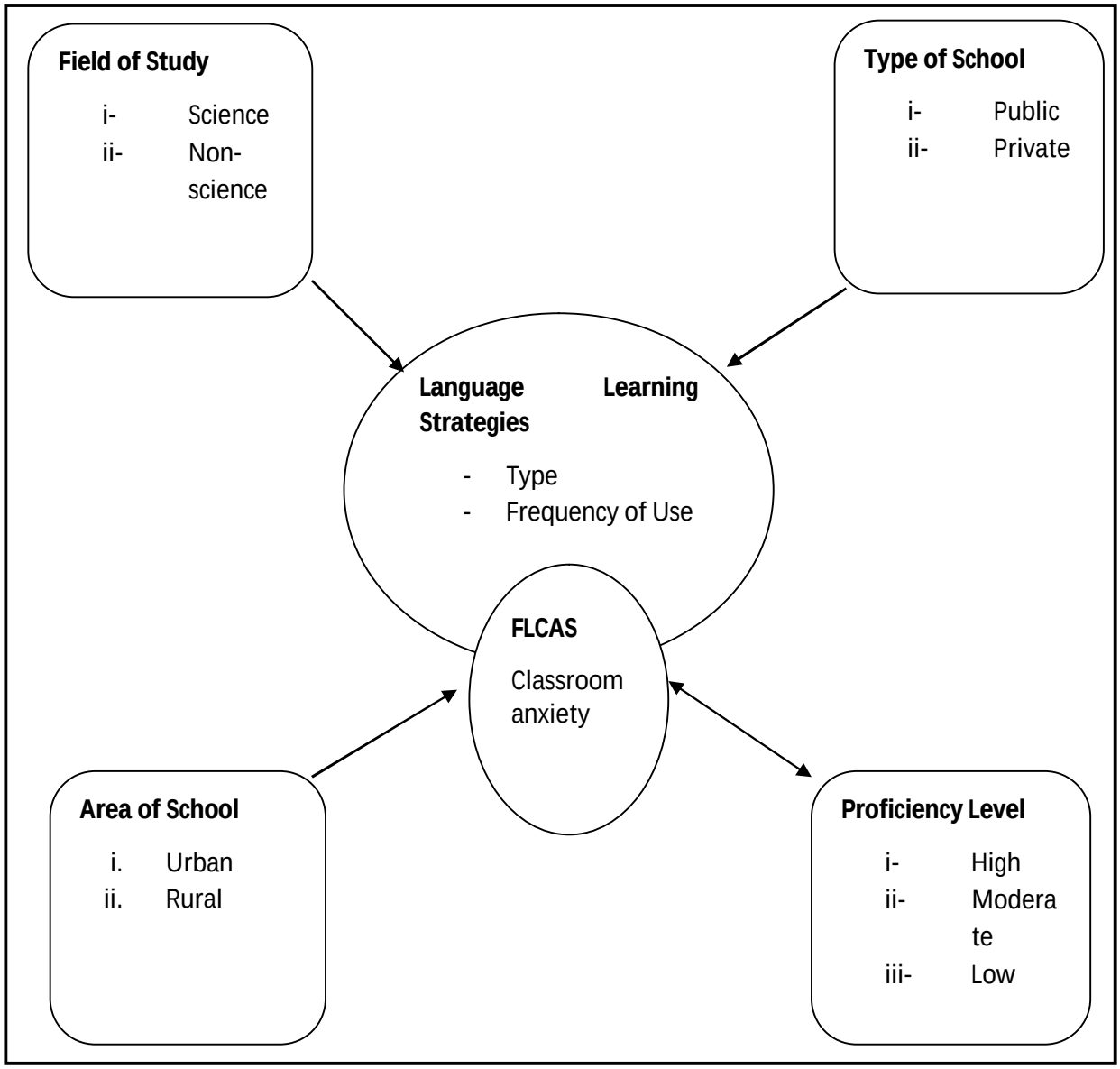
The present study is conducted to find out the interaction of anxiety and to explore how certain factors (schools, field of study, area of the school & proficiency) control learners to employ specific LLS, and how these affect learning outcomes taken as level of proficiency. Stern (1983) stresses an inter-woven relationship between language learners, LLS and different factors. The researcher planned to include the body of existing knowledge regarding the interaction of psychological factors (anxiety) with the LLS use and language proficiency. Fewer researches have explored such type of inter-relationship.

Figure 2.1: Ellis's Model of The Relationship between Individual Learner Differences, Situational and Social Factors, Learning Strategies, and Learning Outcomes



(Ellis, 1994:530)

Figure 2.2: English Learning of High School Students in Pakistan (Model of Current Study)



2.10 Character Differences in Language Learning Strategy

The rationale of the study is that it has been supposed that some learners are doing well in language learning while others are not. There are studies on language learning and language teaching which give stress on the learner's role and to some extent it is a valuable factor which affects the success in the process of language learning. The research into good language learner has given the basis to the research on individual variables which affects language learning. Broadly speaking study variables are as proficiency (Anderson, 1991, Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Dreyer & Oxford, 1996), learning style (Carson & Longhini,

2002), motivation (Cohen & Dornyei, 2002; Ehrman, 1994; Gardner, 1985, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Imran M. 2013), anxiety (Gardner, 1985; Horwitz, 1988, 2000, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991).

According to Dornyei (2005) all the studies related to the effect of LLS on individual differences are "the most fruitful research direction in the area of learning strategies". Ellis (1994) described these factors as important determinants of learning strategies and took them collectively with various occasional factors like; the target language being studied; the nature of the instruction; and the specific task learner is asked to perform, are responsible for the choice of learning strategies. The present study has focused on the psychological factors, anxiety, LLS, and proficiency of second language learning.

2.11 Language Proficiency and Language Learning Strategy Use

Generally, it has been observed in most of the studies that the learners with higher proficiency make more use of language learning strategies than lower proficiency learners, hence indicating a strong relationship between language proficiency and LLSs use (Chang, 1990; Green and Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Chen, 2002; Griffths, 2003). More specifically, cognitive and meta- cognitive strategies have been shown to have high correlations with high language proficiency levels (Ku, 1995; Peacock & Ho, 2003). For example, O'Malley et al. (1985b), studied the range, type and frequency of LLS used by beginning and intermediate high school L2 learners. They reported that both groups used more cognitive than metacognitive strategies while intermediate students used more metacognitive strategies than the beginners. However, some of the studies (e.g. Skehan 1989) suggest that the evidence was not conclusive to suggest a causal relationship between high proficiency and LLS use. They say that for some learners greater strategy use might increase proficiency but for others the opposite might happen. Arguing about the issue, MacIntyre (1994: 188) puts the question "Does the use of certain strategies lead to improve

ability level or does an elevated level of ability lead to the use of different strategies?" He further argues that it is difficult to determine whether strategy use contributes to proficiency or proficiency influences strategy selection.

Similarly, O'Malley et al. (1985a) reported that ESL school beginners used more strategies than did the students from the intermediate level. But in another study conducted on school learners of Spanish and Russian, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) found the opposite results i.e. beginners reported lesser use of LLSs than the intermediate level Students.

Huang and Van Naerssen (1987) also carried out their study on high and low proficient English learners in China. They found that high proficiency students reported more use of functional practice strategies than low proficiency students. Porte (1988) using interviews, with under-achieving learners in English language schools in London, found that the under-achieving learners used vocabulary strategies similar to those used by good language learners. Vann and Abraham (1990) found similar results to that of Huang and van Naerssen and reported that unsuccessful learners of academic English in the USA actively used strategies similar to those employed by successful learners.

Chamot and Küpper (1989) carried out a three-phase study of strategy use of first, third, fifth and sixth year high school students learning Spanish in the USA. In the first phase of their study they found that learners at the higher levels reported more use of strategies than learners at beginning levels. The second phase was a longitudinal study of twenty-seven effective and thirteen ineffective learners where Chamot and Küpper (1989: 17) found that more successful learners used LLS more frequently, more appropriately and with greater variety than did the ineffective students.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989), in a study of 1200 undergraduate foreign language learners also found that greater strategy use was accompanied by perceptions of higher proficiency and that those who had been studying the language for a longer period of time

used more strategies than those who were less experienced language learners. In another study of university students in Puerto Rico, Green and Oxford (1995) found similar results i.e. highest proficiency level learners making greater use of cognitive strategies than those of the lowest proficiency level learners.

In a study of verbal reports from 36 school learners of French in Canada, Anderson and Vandergrift (1996) found just the opposite results to that of Green and Oxford (1995). They reported that the dominance of cognitive strategy use among the learners declined as the level of proficiency increased. In the same study they also found that with the increase in the level of proficiency the use of metacognitive strategies also increased.

Park (1997) studied 332 Korean students learning English as a foreign language to find a relationship between the use of LLS and the proficiency level of the learners. The results were positively correlated between proficiency and the use of LLS.

Peacock and Ho (2003) examined the relationship between the use of LLS and the proficiency level of 1006 students learning English for Academic Purposes in eight different majors in Hong Kong. The results of the study revealed significant relation between LLSs use and proficiency level. Specially, Cognitive and metacognitive strategies revealed very high correlations with the proficiency level of the learners. However, low-proficiency learners outperformed the high-proficiency learners in the use of compensation strategies (Chen, 2002).

Research study into the LLS use and language proficiency has been conducted to show their relationship over the last thirty years. Researchers are still interested and investigating several factors related to LLS use and proficiency of the second language learners. Prominent studies into these subjects are mentioned as Rubin 1975, Stern, 1983; Politzer & McGroarty, 1985; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Wharton, 2000; Su, 2005.

Proficiency level in the foreign language learning is conceded as a measurement scale of success in the target aim. There are two questions raised in the studies of exploring the relationship between LLS use and language proficiency:

i. Which factor is a cause of strategy use or language proficiency?

ii. What is the impact of language learning strategy in improving language learning proficiency versus language proficiency affecting different use of LLS?

(Dornyei, 2005; Ehrman et al., 2003; Macaro, 2004; MacIntyre, 1994) emphasized the connection between strategy use and proficiency as "that either proficiency influences the choices of strategies or that strategy choice is simply a sign of proficiency level" (p. 188). Green and Oxford (1995) conducted their research to find-out the influence of language proficiency on LLS use. The result was in the favour that proficient learner made a greater use of strategies on the other hand Park (1997) conducted a study focusing on the impact of the strategies use on the language proficiency and concluded that a greater use of strategies influenced language proficiency. Bremner (1999) found a correlation between proficiency and strategy use. He stated that strategy and proficiency are in a mutual relationship on the basis of their outcome in the form language learning (p. 49).

In the domain of the interaction of language learning strategies and proficiency, many researchers (Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003; Griffiths & Parr, 2001; Khalil, 2005; Bedell & Oxford, 1996; Su, 2005; Wharton, 2000; Bermner, 1999; Ok, 2003; Park, 1997; Peacock & Ho, 2003) conducted their research by using the method self-rating language proficiency and language achievement and proficiency test respectively, they concluded a significant correlation between a learner's proficiency and use of strategies.

2.12 Essential Characteristics of Language Learning Strategies

Because of the availability of numerous definitions of language learning strategies, Ernesto Macaro (2004) describes the key attributes of LLS. He remarks that leaning

strategies are the unconscious process and a relative cognitive process which can be applied to different learning environments. This sub-conscious/unconscious mental process reacts with neurological process so as to affect the learning process. Every strategy has the following important characteristics

1. A strategy should not be made simple to the other strategies. To do this, every strategy should be elaborated in terms of cognitive behaviour instead of overt motor behaviour.
2. A strategy also requires clear goal and intention. The set goal can be achieved in the form of mastery orientation and performance orientation. Mastery orientation centres on 'the learning itself' and performance orientation focuses on learner's ability to get excellent grades. Strategies are also described in terms of self-regulation, self-determination /autonomous learning (Dornyei 2005).
3. Learners should use strategies to any situation. To do so, learners have the capacity to remind the previous strategies. For doing this, learners can also find similarities between the new task and the previously given task (Anderson, 2000). Thus, strategies are both situation-specific and transferable to any of the available situation.
4. Strategies are the mental action which can be put forward to the learners. These can be experienced by repeating them at the regular intervals.
5. Considering the above mentioned strategies, following formula should be used: If a learner has a learning situation suppose, X, and the set learning goal is Y, then mental action Z should be tried.
6. A single strategy might be observable and unobservable at a given time. Indirect correspondence can be observed between the strategy and the overt behaviour.

7. In any strategy, different learners have different levels of automaticity or proceduralizition (McLaughlin, 1987). Through rehearsal and memorising, mental action Z becomes automatic.
8. "A strategy should be discrete from the contents of the language" (Macaro, 2004, p.5). It denotes that both the strategic knowledge and linguistic knowledge should be treated one by one. It also noted that linguistic knowledge required for note taking mixes up with the strategies related to note-taking (Aziz, 1995).
9. Usually, a strategy leads to the learning of language. It needs the potential of the strategy. Such consideration must be based on logic rather than a general statement (Macaro, 2004, p.5).
10. A strategy may be applied to the learners but not others as it happens in any situation where there is no phonemic correspondence between learners' mother tongue and the target second language.
11. To use any of the available strategy, some linguistic knowledge from the side of the learner is required. Without prior knowledge, it hurdles the learner to use particular strategy. For instance, the first language reading strategy can be shifted to the comprehension of second language text.
12. Any alone strategy cannot be proved fruitful. However, if strategies are used in a series of clusters, their effectiveness can be seen easily, for instance, searching a new word in L1-L2 dictionary.
13. Strategy clusters might be evaluated on account of metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies can affect and regulate the conscious cognitive activity (Schraw and Moshman, 1995).
14. Clusters of strategies meet with the cognitive processes.

2.13 Definition of Anxiety and Language Anxiety

Atkinson & Hilgard (1971) defined anxiety as a psychological state of apprehension and vague fear which is indirectly linked with an object. Anxiety was found to be involved in various kinds of learning, but the anxiety related to "second language or foreign language". According to Spielberger (1983 p. 15) anxiety is considered as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with arousal of autonomic nervous system" Anwar & Naz (2010). It means anxiety is a mental process which is related to the nervous system of the learner in which neurons are involved which is classified as sensory neurons, motor neurons, and associated neurons. Biologically these nerves are associated with the control of all human activities. In addition to this there is involvement of the endocrine glands and their secretions. According to McIntyre (1999) language anxiety is the state of mind in which a person has trouble and negative emotional response produced during the process of second or foreign language learning. Anxiety is also linked with other learner's factors such as self-efficacy (Mills, 2006), attitude (Awan et al, 2010), and language learning strategy use being researched by the current study (Wu; 2010). It is the general belief of many researchers that anxiety is an important variable in the language learning and has been found as a significant forecaster of the learning process (McCraty, 2007; Othman, 2010). According to Vitasari et al. (2010) anxiety has been regarded as a "detrimental effect" linked to academic performance. Moreover, its high degree can hamper memory and concentration towards learning. Awan et al (2010) found a negative correlation between language learning anxiety and language performance. Various researchers have found language anxiety and class presentation as a sources of anxiety (Othman & Vitasari 2010). According to Wenden (1987) & Chiang (2004) explored a strong linked between language learning strategy use and language learning beliefs exista. These two variables are different but the research suggests that belief could influence the

way learners use strategies. So, the interaction of psychological factor (anxiety) and the use of LLS.

2.14 Types of Anxiety

In foreign language research, anxiety is taken as a new and interesting area. According to Gardner & MacIntyre (1992, 1993), foreign language anxiety is considered as an important factor influencing language learning process. To comprehend the basic concept and the nature of the very term it must to take an overview of anxiety and its different types. Following are three prominent types of anxiety:

i) trait anxiety

ii) state anxiety

iii) situational anxiety

2.14.1 Trait anxiety

Trait anxiety is a condition of an individual to manage stress while speaking or performing any activity. People who are having trait anxiety become anxious easily. In the hazardous condition while speaking in the public, an individual cannot perform properly. Trait anxiety is considered as a long manifestation of anxiety.(pappamihiel,2002)

2.14.2 State anxiety

In a situation of fear or danger this type of anxiety makes an individual more sensitive on emotional grounds which leads to physical and mental observable changes. Such type of changes effect the performance of assignment. A language learner can manage anxiety by using different techniques like relaxation, hypnotherapy, cognitive behaviour therapy, and positive thinking.(Spielberger et al.1994)

2.14.3 Situational anxiety

Situational anxiety is a temporary/short term type of anxiety with regard to public speaking in various situations or context. In some cases people experience this type of anxiety which effect their performance. (Maclntyre et all,1989)

2.15 Symptoms of Anxiety

An anxious student or a learner has some sign and symptom which are as following:

- Fear of making mistakes or making a fool of you to others.
- Fear of passing out.
- Fear that you are losing your mind.
- Fears about irrational things, objects, circumstances, or situations.
- Fears of going crazy, of dying, of impending doom, of normal things, unusual feelings, and emotions, unusually frightening thoughts or feelings.
- Difficulty in thinking, speaking, forming thoughts, following conversations.
- Disorientation.
- Frequent feeling of being overwhelmed, or that there is just too much to handle or do.

Above mentioned symptoms vary person to person. Moreover, there are many other symptoms but the most frequently experienced have been mentioned here.

2.16 The Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Foreign Language Anxiety

Anxiety plays its role in all types of learning processes while in case of second or foreign language learning it is termed as second or foreign language anxiety. The interaction of anxiety in a learning perspective is a complicated phenomenon (Young, 1991).

Commonly it has been explored that feeling of anxiety mostly exists in speaking and listening (Horwitz et al, 1986: 29). As in the interaction both the skills are involved.

Research literature on language learning strategies has some evidence in the support of the language tremendous growth related to LLS. There is a significant role of social and psychological factors (motivation, attitude, self-empathy, anxiety…) which seems to influence language learning. The main attention has been given to the part played by anxiety in the use of language learning strategies (Horwitz et al, 1986). Research studies were arranged to explore the role of classroom anxiety among the students of foreign language. Daley (1999) suggests that a prominent factor of society impede with the foreign language learning. Foreign language learning anxiety helps both teacher and students to fill the gap of their wish to teach and learn. The present study is a research which has explored the link between language learning strategies and anxiety among high school students in Pakistan. When we observe the direct language learning strategies like through reasoning, note taking, formal practice with structures and sounds, analysis, functional practice in naturalistic setting etc. Memory strategies including learner's capability to store new information in memory and recover it later. Compensation strategies include activities to compensate for missing knowledge and guessing while in the listening or reading skill use of synonym or substitute words in speaking or writing. Metacognitive strategies include planning, arranging, and evaluation of one's language learning. Cognitive strategies include the control of language learning process. Affective strategies help to control learner's emotions, motivations and attitudes. Social strategies develop the cooperation in the process of language learning. Anxiety is interlinked in the use of language learning strategies mentioned above. There is positive or negative influence of anxiety in the use of LLS.

Language learning anxiety is the particular type of anxiety which is linked to the process of the foreign language learning (Gardner & Maclntyre, 1991). Researchers have

recognized the difference between language anxiety and other form of anxiety in the course of learning a foreign language (Horwitz et al, 1986). Horwitz et al suggests three interlinked process essential in foreign language anxiety. Which are as following; communication anxiety, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is particular to second or foreign language situations. In this type of apprehension, metacognitive consciousness is involved, as a speaker and listener full comprehension or understanding of a foreign language message (FLM) is not possible. Test anxiety is linked to the frequent testing and examination held in the language classroom. Fear of negative evaluation includes academic as well as personal evaluation made of students on their competence and performance in the foreign language. Teachers remain ready to correct the mistakes of the learners so learners remain under-pressure.

The research into affective factors (self-esteem, motivation and anxiety) has been gaining popularity up to this level that it is considered as the "philosopher's stone" of language teaching and applied linguistics by Stevick (1980). In response to the question "why some learners learn better than the others". According to Stevick (1980) success in the process of learning does not depend upon material, methodology and linguistics constituents but, inside and among the people in the classroom. Arnold (1999) supports in the favour that affective factors add in language learning to some extent more than the cognitive skill. According to Gardner & Maclntyre (1992-93) affective variable have an important effect on language achievement. Damasio (1996: 25) indicates emotion as significant factor in the language learning and observes emotion & cognition as partner to such an extent "minds without emotions are not really minds at all".

The affective factors of language learners in the process of learning do the matter of achievement or disappointment in the process of language learning (Oxford 1990: 40). These factors in the process of L2 or foreign language learning are emotions, empathy, self-

esteem, motivation, attitude and anxiety. The difficult task in learning L2 or foreign is likely to be influenced by human anxiety (Brown: 1994) which is linked to the sign and symptoms of disturbance, un-lenience, self-doubt and nervousness. Anxiety provoking situations are such as speaking a foreign language in public especially in front of native speakers. Extreme anxious situations occur when EFL learner face the situation of tongue tied or loss of words in a typical context. This thing leads to discouragement and disappointment. At this point there exists a difference between adults and children. Adults are concerned with a mental approach, how they are judged by the others. The sense of making errors or apprehension of "losing face" is found in adult learners and it makes them unable to speak foreign language without apprehension.

Generally anxiety is considered as a psychological factor and is being surveyed by researchers. Numerous definitions have been presented by many researchers, the most one of them is; "subjective consciously perceived feeling of apprehension and tension accompanied by or associated with activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system (Speilberger, 1966).

2.17 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

There are several factors influencing the foreign language learning. These factors are motivation, proficiency, attitude, LLS, cultural background, age, learning style, tolerance of ambiguity and anxiety. In all the above mentioned factors influencing the foreign language learning, anxiety is reported as the most negative affective factor which steadily hinders language learners from using most prominent and effective language learning strategies (Maclntyre, 1994; Cohen, 1995). There are number of studies on language anxiety and foreign language proficiency (Ehrman, 1996; Mclntyre & Noels, 1996). Park (2007) explored language anxiety as a main negative cause which prohibit learner from using or trying to use language learning strategies. Even though they desired to use learning

strategies. The factor exists that more successful learners felt less projected anxiety and less successful sensed more likely anxiety. Having their obnoxious experiences with unfriendly native speakers of English. He found "systematically patterned differences between more successful learners and less successful learners. More successful learners gave importance to the whole meaning in their communication while less successful learner try to speak grammatically correct English. The interaction of these above stated two groups with reference to their experience with unfriendly native speakers. Less successful learners have unlikable experience and felt language anxiety. On the other hand the same learners felt less anxiety as they communicated with kind and friendly native English speakers. In case of more successful learners it has significant variance.

Foreign language anxiety is situation-specific anxiety (Cope & Horwitz: 1986). According to Maclntyre & Gardner (1991) language anxiety is different from other anxieties. Having the aim to explore the foreign language classroom anxiety a 33 items questionnaire was developed and named as foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986). Through this tool respondents were asked to reply to situation-specific anxiety and reflect on three prominent elements of foreign language classroom anxiety: communication, apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation (Ganshow & Sparks 1996). FLCAS has been used by many researchers because of its validation and reliability to conduct research on foreign language classroom anxiety (Change & Liao 1999).

2.17.1 Communication Apprehension

Communication apprehension is defined by McCroskey (1978) as an individual level of fear or anxiety linked with real or anticipated communication with another person. According to Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) it is a fear to the conceptualization of foreign language anxiety. They consider inter-person interaction significant in the English

class. In a foreign language class, both concepts of that language and performance are equally important. Oral communication consists of two components, listening and speaking. According to Maclntyre & Gardner (1991) speaking is anxiety provoking in foreign language tasks. In case of listening foreign language learner face some complexities in understanding others and this thing create apprehension (Maclntyre & Gardner: 1991).

2.17.2 Test Anxiety

In case of poor performance in the test, the students feel test anxiety. Such type of negative mind making, related to test, develops irrational perceptions in assessing context. Sarson (1984) has defined test anxiety as "the tendency to view, with alarm, the consequences of inadequate performance in an evaluative situation". Anxious student have some bad type of experience in the test of language or any other subject and unknowingly apply that experience in the current English class (Chan & Wu 2000). These students may have wrong beliefs in language learning. It becomes their habit to consider it as a failure if anything less than a perfect performance (Cope & Horwitz 1986). Oral proficiency develops at low levels is under the effect of test anxiety and vice versa (Young 1991). From the above discussion anxiety comes in case of alarm a failure and assessment. Test anxiety is related to the academic situations where frequently assessment exists.

2.17.3 Fear of Negative Evaluation

Watson and Friend (1969) defined fear of negative evaluation as fear about assessment, distress over their negative evaluation and the anticipation that other would assess them negatively. On this definition we can take it like test anxiety but in a broader sense than that. Test anxiety is related to a particular context of the test but it may be in any social context of evaluation speaking to anybody in foreign language classroom. Gardner & Maclntyre (1991d) linked it closely to 'communication apprehension'. According to Aida's

(1994) students under the influence of the apprehension of negative assessment come under the cover of isolation in the foreign classroom and sit passively without participating into the classroom activity. These students search escape from the class which have a harmful effect on second or foreign language learning (Cope & Horwitz 1986).

2.18 Character of Anxiety in Foreign Language Classroom

Psychological factor like anxiety plays a vital role in the success or failure of second or foreign language learning (Ganschow 1994). According to Scovel (1978) anxiety may be facilitating debilitating. Former case anxiety motivates the learner and in latter case isolates the learner from the class and motivates it to avoid the language learning task. Further differentiation is provided by Maclntyre (1995) that in simple language learning task anxiety plays facilitating role while in case of complex task anxiety play its role as negatively.

The above stated role of anxiety in the form of language learning, i.e.facilitator or inhibitor, can be tested by the theory of language class risk-taking and class discomfort. Ely (1986) gave the definitions of language class risk taking as an "individual's tendency to assume risks in using the L2 in the second language class". In this aspect if learner is ready to take the risk of language learning then participate in the foreign language learning activities and becomes successful. On the other hand his escaping policy from the language learning process becomes under the influence of negative role of the anxiety and classroom performance is affected at considerable level that shows debilitating role of anxiety.

In both of the context whether facilitating or debilitating, anxiety influence on the performance of the second language negatively (Maclntyre & Gardner 1991b). The impact of language anxiety on the success of foreign language learning is analyzed as under.

2.19 Interaction of Language Anxiety with Foreign Language Learning

Under the Chomsky's model foreign language learning can be divided into three phases as input, processing and output. In case of these three phases language learning anxiety can influence the ability of a learner to process information up to a considerable level. Gardner & Maclntyre (1991a) indicated the influence of anxiety on the language learning, especially, on the output stage in terms of production, presentation, course ranking and other criteria. Among these the most important is presentation or performance at output stage is considered as a significant indicator by teachers and parents. No doubt anxiety has its effect on the language learning and its achievement but the results of the researches on the interaction of anxiety and foreign language learning are mixed and perplexing (Scovel 1978). Young (1991) established no association of significant level between the anxiety measure and oral proficiency index (OPI) and concluded in the favour of foreign language aptitude as a significant factor. She concluded that test anxiety effects with low level of proficiency so it should be examined with a leaner's language proficiency.

Tobias (1986) took anxiety as a mental block to the cognitive performance at all the cognitive phases: input, processing and output. In other words anxiety stimulation is linked with apprehension of failure to be anxious over the performance, actions and self-expression of disapproving thoughts fight against the normal processing of cognition. If the learner is over loaded with anxious thought then learning process naturally affect the language learning performance (Eysenck 1979). Furthermore, even the students having excellent performance under worry situation of over-performance strive hard to balance it because in this situation their routine situations make them more anxious (Horwitz et al 1986). In regard to the negative role of anxiety result fluctuates in majority of the cases. Horwitz (1991) found negative correlation between anxiety and foreign language success. He conducted his study for the validity and reliability of the foreign language classroom anxiety

scale (FLCAS). Moreover, negative correlation was revealed through many studies for the negative influence of the anxiety with students' performance in term of standardizes tests (Gardner et al 1987).

2.20 Review of the Studies on Language Learning Strategies

Over the previous three decades language learning strategies are considered as an "extremely powerful learning tool" (Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper & Russo, 1985a: 43). Rubin, Stern and Naimen et al are among the first researchers of language learning strategies. Following are research studies on language learning strategies having their aim, context of the conducted research, investigated variables, educational levels of the participants and the main instruments used in the studies.

Mochizuki (1999) carried out a study to explore overall strategy use by 157 English as foreign language learners (EFL) in a Japanese university. His variables were field of study and gender. A questionnaire was used as an instrument of the study. It was explored that Japanese EFL university students, most often, use compensation strategies and least used one were affective strategies. It was also found that most proficient used cognitive and metacognitive strategies most frequently than those who are less proficient learners. He found motivation, enjoyment of English learning and gender as major influencing factors on the choice of strategies.

Hallback (2000) framed his study on 73 English learning students in Spain to explore their overall strategy use and strategies used by more successful and less successful learners. The major variable was learning performance and instrument of the research was diary. He concluded that students obtaining higher marks during their final test reported more language learning strategies use than the less successful language learner.

Spitalli (2000) conducted a study in American high school learners of French, Spanish and German. A negative correlation was explored between FLCAS and a compute of attitude toward people of various cultures.

Wharton (2000) conducted a research on 678 English as second language learners in the context of Singapore. His center of study was overall strategy use and the explored variables were teaching methodologies, foreign or second language setting, previous FL/SL experiences, motivation, gender and self-rating proficiency. He found the significant interaction of motivation in the language learning strategies use, linked with self-rated proficiency.

Ounwattana (2000) conducted a study on 186 students in Thailand, focus of the study was their overall speaking and writing strategies. The instrument of the study was questionnaire and speaking, writing, and language proficiency were variables. A significant relationship was found in English speaking and writing abilities of her participants of the research study.

Carson & Longhini (2002) framed their research study on 1 Spanish instructor teaching English in Spain to find out second language learning style and strategies use by the diarist. Diary was the instrument of the study and second language learning style in addition to strategies were as variable of the study. It was found that learners most often use their classroom knowledge in their learning experience and naturalistic leaning situation affect the type and frequency of learning strategies use.

Intaraprasert (2003) carried out a research on 488 university students in Thailand. Focus of the research was overall strategy use and instrument of the study was questionnaire. Variables studies were gender, field of study, English learning experience and self-rated proficiency. It was explored that language learners on the whole reported

medium language learning strategy frequency use and LLS use was having significant variation in term of English perception ability levels.

Kaotsombut (2003) conducted a study on 39 university students in Thai context. The focus of the study was strategies employed by good and poor learners.

Peacock & Ho (2003) conducted a research on 1006 English as second language learners in Hong Kong and the focus of the study was overall strategy use. Their variables of the study were discipline, gender and age. A questionnaire and interview were the instruments of the study. They found a positive relation between 27 strategies and proficiency. It was explored that English students used the most strategies. Significant variations were also in case of age and gender factors: older students were found using more strong affective and social strategies and females were strong in the use of metacognitive and memory strategies.

Su (2005) carried out a study on 419 Taiwanese vocational college students of applied foreign languages. A focus of the study was learning strategies and questionnaire was used a method of data collection. Investigated factors of the study were self-perceived English and proficiency levels. A significant variation was found between the learners' self-perceived English proficiency in addition to their use of LLS as a whole and in all six categories of LLS.

Ok (2005) conducted a study on the use of LLS by Korean junior high school students. Participants of the study were 163 students learning English as a foreign language. SILL (Oxford, 1990) Korean translated version was used as an instrument of the research. A significant relationship between the LLS and proficiency level was explored.

Yang (2007) framed a research study on 461 junior college students in Taiwan. The focus of the study was overall LLS use and questionnaire as a tool of the study. Factors/variables were ethnicity and English proficiency. It was found that in the selection

of LLS ethnicity plays an important role. It was also concluded that LLS is under the influence of language proficiency of the learners. Further review of the already conducted studies showing the relationship of anxiety and LLS is discussed as under;

2.21 Already Conducted Studies in the Relationship of the Extent of LLS Use and Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

The significance of anxiety associated with the extent of strategy use has been explored in several researches. As far as the powerful interaction of the LLS use and anxiety is concerned there are few studies which are mentioned as under:

Park, N (2007) conducted a research to explore the language anxiety on the use of learning strategies. Participants of the study were 58 Korean undergraduate university students in a local university. Out of 58, 30 participants were males and the rest females. The proficiency level ranged roughly from high-beginning to low-advanced classified on their self-rated language proficiency. Oxford's SILL (1990) in addition a follow-up in-depth interviews were instrument of the study. For the purpose 10 students from the initial study were interviewed. The SILL was classified into 6 categories; memory strategies, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, compensative strategies, social strategies and affective strategies. The result explored that Korean learners have used LLS to more extent level than they actually did. Less extent LLS use based from language anxiety of the learners with reference to inter-personal communication with native speakers.

Many factors are responsible to influence foreign language learning and anxiety is one of them. Several studies are as evidence of language anxiety showing the negative interaction with the L2 learning and performance (Horwitz & Young, 1991; Maclntyre 1995, 1996).

This study showed a systematic difference between more successful learners and less successful learners in relation to more or less language anxiety and learning strategy

use. Language anxiety has been known to be close linked to the LLS use of the foreign language learner specifically social learning strategies. Most of the researchers have conducted their researches to find out the interaction of language anxiety and the way language anxiety influence the second or foreign language learning (Horwitz & Young, 1991; Madsen et al., 1991; Ganschow et al., 1994).

The study depicted less successful language learners more influenced through language anxiety having their unlikable experience with unfriendly native speakers on the other hand more successful learners experienced less expected language anxiety on the basis of pleasant experiences with friendly native speakers of English language.

Tar, I. (2007) carried out a study in the correlations of LLS selection with language learning experience and anxiety. On the basis of researcher's 17 years of experience as a teacher of English at the Centre of Agricultural and Technical Sciences, Debrecen University. He studied freshmen and later advanced students' behaviour to language classes. The purpose of study was to disclose interaction of successful LLS and students' language anxiety in the classroom to ease successful language performance as well as teaching. He divided successful and unsuccessful learner on the basis of LLS choice with the correlation to language anxiety. Findings of the research justified that successful learners use successful strategies and having less anxiety level on the other hand unsuccessful L2 learners use less successful strategies and having more anxiety level. Students having low level trait anxiety showed strong willingness to copy native speakers of L2.

Tallon (2009) describes anxiety as a factor affecting foreign language learning in addition to other individual differences like cognitive abilities, personality characteristics, learning styles, Meta cognitive difference and social contexts.

Noor Mohammadi, R. (2009) conducted a study to explore the relation of foreign language anxiety with the LLS use. He carried our research on the extent of LLS by high

and low anxious learners and depicted a valuable correlation between levels of language anxiety and extent of LLS use. Participants of the students were 46 (32 females & 14 males) freshmen in English at Tehran University and Allameh Tabatabaee University. The instrument of the study were Persian translated version of Oxford' SILL (1990) validated by Tahmasebi (1999) and Persian translated version of "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al (1986). The FLCAS items having 5.0 likert scale ranging from a) "strongly disagree" to e) "strongly agree". According to his results, students having high level of anxiety use metacognitive and memory strategies frequently on the other hand compensation and affective strategies were less in their use. Students with low anxiety level reported most frequently use of metacognitive and social strategies and less frequently use of memory and affective strategies. Findings also supports to an inverse relationship between frequency of LLS use and language anxiety. Students having high anxiety level used less LLS frequency as compared to their classmates having less anxiety level. A significant relationship was found in each strategy category as memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensative strategies, metacognitive strategies, social strategies and affective strategies. Study also depicted the interaction of particular level of anxiety to the use of LLS. A negative correlation of anxiety with the extent of strategy use was found.

This research study explored an interaction between particular levels of anxiety with the extent of strategy use in foreign language learning. A negative correlation of the anxiety to the frequency of LLS use was discovered. Three possible ways were revealed through the study, first to look at the helpful way to facilitate language learning students by decreasing their level of anxiety, second to see them as having same underlying role to lessen the level of anxiety and third there is mutual relationship of anxiety and frequency of LLS use.

On the basis of above mentioned studies on LLS and various factors affecting the choice of LLS, it might be concluded that proficiency of language is under the influence of

LLS use. In the present study the researcher carried out the investigation to find out whether or not the variance of language proficiency has a relationship with the students use of LLS and the effect of anxiety on LLS choice.

Wu-Kun-Huei(2010) conducted a study on sixty six students of weekend programme at the university in northern Taiwan.41 female and 25 male age ranging 25-53 the results indicated that participants having much time to use English language, experience low level of anxiety. This study also specified the role of teacher as facilitator, advisor and co-communicator. In language learning process anxiety seems to be a hindrance in foreign language acquisition. A teacher should provide less threatening atmosphere to strengthen students confident.

Lucas et al.(2011) describes language learning strategies as equipment to face their anxieties which is an evidence of negative role of anxiety and positive role of LLS in the process of language learning process.

Yilien H.(2011) a negative correlation was investigated between foreign language anxiety and reading strategy.

Mohammadi E.G et al.(2013) carried out a research study to investigate the correlation of foreign language anxiety and LLS. They conducted the study to find out the relationship between the extent of LLS used and level of language learning anxiety among 85 university students. It was also objective of their study to explore the level of anxiety of the low LLS users.

Participants of the study were 85 students ay Islamic Azad University In Iran studying at the B.A level.

According to the findings LLS use extent in descending order was as meta cognitive, social, cognitive, memory and affective strategies. Negative correlation between extent of strategies use and foreign language anxiety was found. Significant negative correlation was

investigated between cognitive, compensation, social LLS and the level of anxiety. Statistically non-significant correlation was found between affective, memory, meta cognitive LLS and level of anxiety.

Iranian students reported more frequently use of metacognitive, compensation and social LLS. Least frequently use of affective, cognitive and memory strategies.

2.22 Summary

An explanation of the LLS and its importance in the learning of language is given in present context of Pakistan. Definition of LLS by different researchers on the basis of their research and its classification for the purpose of the research was discussed. Taxonomies of LLS revealed it as an essential contribution to facilitate the study into LLS. There is systematic two, three and six LLS classification given by Rubin (1981), Oxford (1990), and O'Malley & Chamot (1990). Oxford (1990) constructed strategy inventory of language learning (SILL) on the basis of detailed six category classification.

In the current study what LLS and to what extent used by the population that includes 10^{th} class students of various school in Bahawalpur, Pakistan. The interaction of psychological factor (anxiety level) has been measured through foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) constructed by Horwitz & Cope (1986).

Psychological factors (anxiety) its detailed description and influence on the language learning in the language classroom context is described. Already conducted studies in the language learning strategies use with reference to various variables and influence of anxiety in the use of LLS are explained.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Purpose and the Summary of the Chapter

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the design of the study. The aim of the study is to find out the anxiety among the foreign language learner and interaction of the anxiety, apprehension or nervousness with their language learning strategies. What the variations are between the language learning strategies of the students who are more anxious and who are less anxious.

This chapter deals with the general principles of research design for the current study, method of research into LLS and psychological factors (anxiety), interaction of anxiety in the use of LLS, data collection procedure, sampling and justification for the selection of participants and their schools are discussed. The last part of this chapter deals with the analysis of collected data.

It is significant to think about the research background before discussing the research design of the current research. As purpose and research questions in the study establish the methodology and research design (Robson, 2002).

The present study has been framed to explore following questions:

1. Which language learning strategy or groups of strategies do students report using most frequently?
2. How anxieties affect the process of language learning and use of language learning strategies considering the variables like; private and public, rural and urban schools, science and non-science subjects and their language proficiency?

3.2 Research Methods into LLS

There are several methods to collect data for the investigation into LLS used by the language learners which are evident from the literature on LLS. These tools include; classroom observations, interviews, self- report questionnaires, think-aloud protocols and diaries.

All the above mentioned methods of research into LLS have their advantages and disadvantages as well. No single method is perfect (Cohen & Scott, 1996). Therefore, it is necessary to keep in view the purpose of the research before finalizing the method of the research. In this way an appropriate method will be designed for the investigation. According to Robson (2002), the method of the research should appropriate the purpose of the study.

Questionnaire as the research tool for present study has been selected considering the purpose of the study. The most frequent and efficient method for identifying students' learning strategies is a questionnaire. The limitations of the questionnaire are that the students may not remember the strategies they have used in the past or may claim to use strategies that in fact they do not use, or may not understand the strategy descriptions in the questionnaire items. For these reasons, some studies have developed questionnaires based on tasks that students have just completed, reasoning that students will be more likely to remember and to report accurately if little time has elapsed (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Fan, 2003; Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown, 1999; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford et al., 2004; Ozeki, 2000; Weaver & Cohen, 1997).

The limitations of this approach are that, to date, there has been no standardization of either tasks or follow up questionnaires, that's why it is impossible to make comparisons across studies.

3.3 Design of the Study

The design of the current study is ex post facto in which researcher has no control over what has happened. Present study is descriptive one as it is linked to the relationships that occur , opinions or developing trends. It is basically related with the present even though it often reflects past happenings.(Best & James ;1989). According to Hatch & Farhady (1981) correlational designs are the most common subgroup of ex post facto.

The present study was designed to explore the anxiety of foreign language learning students and interaction of psychological factor in the use of their language learning strategies. From the above mentioned fact it is indicated that study comprises two instruments of measurement: anxiety of foreign language learners questionnaire (FLCAS) and Oxford's (1990) SILL (version 7.0 strategy inventory for the language learning).

It should be recognized that current study is descriptive one. According to Best & James (1989), "A descriptive study describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are evident, or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers past events and influences as they relate to current conditions"(p.76). As a result the design of the study is **ex post facto**. In such type of design researcher has no device over what has occurred to the participants. As Hatch & Farhady (1981) uphold: "Correlational designs are the most commonly used subset of **ex post facto** design."(p.27). In the current study frequency of LLS use has been taken as independent variable and FLA as the dependent one same like Mohammadi G.E.(2013). Noormohammadi (2009) took FLA as independent variable and LLS use dependent. In ex post facto type of research there is no matter of dependent and independent variable.

3.4 Instruments

The instruments for the present study consist of two questionnaires, one SILL (version 7.0) another FLCAS. The English result of the 9th class examination held under Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Bahawalpur were also used for the purpose of the current study. The questionnaire consisted of participants own background information part having twelve items. Assessment of language learning strategies section containing fifty items likert- scale was adopted from Oxford (1990).

There are reasons to use questionnaire as the tool to assess anxiety and the frequency of language learning strategies of the participants in the research. First in support of questionnaire as an instrument of survey is that Neuman (2003) considered it as a suitable technique to achieve the purpose about self-reported behaviour. Second, it is a rapid method to collect the responses of a large sample size within a short period of time. According to Seliger & Shenamy (1989) it is much more significant to keep participants at ease and free to provide their responses to particular learning behaviour.

Questionnaire used for the current study was mainly divided into three sections. First section contained twelve, personal background information. Second section consisted of fifty items further divided which was further divided into two main groups direct and indirect strategies and then into six subgroups 1-9 items memory strategies, 10-23 cognitive strategies, 24-29 compensation strategies, 30-38 metacognitive strategies, 39-44 affective strategies and 45-50 social strategies. The third section consisted of 33 FLCAS items developed by Horwitz and Cope (1986) in which five point likert scale with the options ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. .94 reliability was calculated on the test performed by Spark et al (2009). Huang (2008) divided FLCAS into three main sections: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fair of negative evaluation. According to this model communication apprehension consist of FLCAS items 1, 4, 9, 14, 15, 18, 24, 27, 29,

30, 32. Test anxiety comprises FLCAS items 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 28 and fear of negative evaluation includes FLCAS items 2, 7, 13, 19, 23, 31, 33.

High validity of SILL was shown in the previously conducted studies by Oxford, 1989; Nyikos, 1989; Green, 1995; Burry-Stock, 1995; Yang, 1999 and Liao, 2000. For the purpose of the validity of the questionnaire applied in the current study one professional and 10^{th} class students were requested to read all the items of the instruments attentively and carefully. The modification was made in the light of their response then pilot study was conducted to ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.

There are 83 items in the questionnaire in addition to twelve personal background information items of the members participating in the study. 50 items were of SILL and 33 items of FLCAS. Students' response and corresponding score of the questionnaire was 'strongly agree' having score 5, agree having score 4, undecided having score 3, disagree having score 2 and strongly disagree having score 1.

3.5 Strategy Inventory for language Learning (SILL)

Strategy Inventory for language Learning (SILL) penlights the language learning process and strategies by dint of retrospective interviews, stimulated recall interviews, questionnaires, written diaries and journals with a learning task. These different methods have different merits and demerits. However, these methods also signified the process of language learning strategies.

Learners were asked to show what was going on in their minds in a recently completed learning task in retrospective interviews (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Its limitation is that learners may forget some of the details of their thought processes or may describe what they perceive as the "right" answer. In a stimulated recall interview, learners' actual learning strategies were brought out during a task because the learners used videotaped when they were performing the task. This videotape was played back and at the

needed pause learners were asked to describe their thoughts at that exact moment during the learning task (Robbins, 1996).

Questionnaire is the most recurrent and well-organized method for identifying students' learning strategies. The drawbacks of the questionnaire are that the learners may not recall the strategies which they have used in the past. Thus, questionnaire should be based on tasks the learners have just accomplished. In this way, learners may report positively (Chamot & El-Dinary, 1999; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Fan, 2003; Kojic-Sabo & Lightbown, 1999; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford et al., 2004; Ozeki, 2000; Weaver & Cohen, 1997).

A questionnaire prepared by Oxford (1990) has also been used in numbers of descriptive studies for the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). This questionnaire has been used widely on foreign language learners for the collection of data (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1998; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Olivares-Cuhat, 2002; Oxford, 1990; 1996; Oxford & Burry- Stock, 1995; Wharton, 2000). SILL has also been used in 40 to 50 key studies and its reliability and validity has also been checked in many ways (Oxford, 1996).

Until now, two types of SILL have been appeared i.e. one for foreign language learners having native English language (80 items) and one for the speakers of any of the other languages using English as a second or foreign language (50 items). For speakers of others languages, the 50 items versions has been used in the present study. It has been translated in more than twelve languages. SILL items have been taken by two strategy experts from a detailed blueprint of a range of over 200 possible strategy types having agreement on .99 strategies out of the whole arrangement (Rebecca 1990, p.30).

SILL was organised by a factor analysis into six strategy groups. Each group has sufficient number of items for the comprehensiveness of the language learning strategies.

These six strategy subgroups are: memory strategies for instance grouping, imagery and rhyming etc. (9 items), cognitive strategies for instance reasoning, analysing (14 items), compensation strategies i.e. guessing meaning from the given context, using synonyms and body language to convey meaning (6 items), metacognitive strategies for the planning, monitoring and evaluating improvement and paying attention etc (9 items), affective strategies for the self-encouragement to reduce anxiety and social strategies(06 items) like asking questions, assisting with the native speakers (6 items).

The SILL can be used to collect and analyse items of information about plenty of language learners. It has also been applied to such variables like learning styles, gender, proficiency level, and culture (Bedell & Oxford, 1996; Bruen, 2001; Green & Oxford, 1995; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Wharton, 2000).

3.5.1 Reliability of SILL

According to Jope (2000), reliability is "the extent to which results are dependable over time and a correct depiction of the whole population for the given study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be replicated under a given similar methodology, then the research instrument is said to be reliable (p. 1).

It denotes that if an instrument demonstrates consistency over time and represents the whole population under the given study s correctly then the instrument can be termed as reliable. To know the reliability of SILL, Oxford (1996, p31) proposes that questionnaire having Cronbach alpha coefficient should be preferred to the overall questionnaire. In continuous data sheets like Likert Scale Cronbach's alpha coefficient is usually used to find out internal consistency.

3.5.2 Validity of SILL

Joppe (2000) defines validity as: "Validity verifies whether the research truly measures its purposes to know how truthful the research results are. It also shows whether the research hits your targeted research"

According to Messick (1989), in quantitative research the construct validity is given weightage comprising utility, value implications, social consequences, interpretation and real world action. According to oxford, SILL verifies all the conditions set forth by Messick. She has proved that learners' performance is strongly correlated with the use of language learning strategies as she has proved it in various examples of the various studies.

Horwitz (1986) measured internal consistency of the FLCAS 0.93 by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and validity tested, retested was 0.83(P=0.001,n=78). Horwitz and Young (1991) conducted construct validity of the scale. Speilberger (1983) measured the correlation of the FLCAS with the scale of State-Trait Anxiety Inventory which was 0.29(P=0.007,n=56) measured by Watson & Friend. Correlation of FLCAS with Test Anxiety was 0.53(P=0.001,n=60) found by Sarason(1980)

3.6 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

33 FLCAS items developed by Horwitz& Cope (1986) in which five point likert scale with the options ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. .94 reliability was calculated on the test performed by Spark et al (2009). Huang(2008) classified FLCAS into three main sections: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. According to this model communication apprehension consist of FLCAS items 1, 4, 9, 14, 15, 18, 24, 27, 29, 30, 32. Test anxiety comprises FLCAS items 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 16, 17, 20, 21, 22, 25, 26, 28 and fear of negative evaluation includes FLCAS items 2, 7, 13, 19, 23, 31, 33.

3.7 Pilot Study

Many researchers emphasis on conducting pilot study proceeding to start the main study aiming to reassure the achievability along with the reliability and validity of research tools like questionnaire (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

'The first stage of any data gathering should, if at all possible be a 'dummy run' – a pilot study. This helps you to throw up some of the inevitable problems of converting your design into reality' (Robson, C 2000, p.301).

To evaluate the viability of the current research, a pilot study was carried out choosing the sample of respondents related to the marked population for whom study was intended and questionnaire was framed. It is best to carry out a pilot study on the population similar to the population of the actual study (Bell, 1993). It was carried out a year before the real study as Munn & Drever stated, 'it is not uncommon to run the pilot one year and the study proper exactly a year later' (1990, p.30).

Pilot study is a small edition of the real study, beneficial for the evaluation of research tools like questionnaire etc. to verify the practicability of the study researcher is intended to carry out. The most important benefit of the pilot study is that it can be helpful to mark unclear wording of the participants' experience and make us aware about the likely a risk to the successful completion of the research. Pilot study also gives evidence of the problems which can be faced during the administration of the questionnaire and other measuring tools. In this way a researcher can adopt precautionary measure to prevent from invisible threat related to the research. Investigator can keep away himself from undetectable threats related to 'scoring and processing of the answers' and can have advice about face-validity of the questionnaire and 'clarity of the instructions' (Dornyei, 2003). It also provides the investigator a scheme about the time duration required to complete the questionnaire and proficiency test. 'Just like theatre performances, a research study also

needs a dress rehearsal to show the high quality (in terms of reliability and validity) of the outcomes in the specific context' (Dornyei, 2007 p.75).

A pilot study was conducted for SILL and FLCAS to see the unidentified complications, such as ambiguous or incorrect translations, to conclude administration measures as well as the predictable span of time for completion. For the pilot study on the SILL, the SILL was distributed to 92 Pakistani high school students studying in rural, urban, government, private, science and non-science in March, 2013. Statistical analysis was carried out to compare the respondents' responses to the SILL as well as FLCAS. Moreover, the descriptive statistics was used to find out frequencies, means, and standard deviations of the above mentioned categories of the students. The reliability of the Pakistani high school students' version of the SILL was high at .88, using Cronbach's alpha. (Annexure 2 attached)

3.8 Participants

This study was conducted in several schools of Bahawalpur Tehsil. Of the 476 students belonging to rural, urban, private, public, science and non science backgrounds of the class 10^{th}. Eighteen schools were selected for the said purpose. Out of them six were urban, six were private and six were rural. All the participants at the time of research were in 10^{th} grade and had passed their 9^{th} class examination held under The Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education Bahawalpur in 2012. All students (participants) in this study were non-native speakers of English language. Most of them belonged to Urdu, Saraiki, and Punjabi language backgrounds.

Most of the participants started their study of English language at their beginning level. In this multi-lingual system of Pakistan, first they learnt their mother tongue then national language Urdu. These two said languages have been learnt by the learners in the environment surrounding them. But, English was only learnt by the participants in formal

way or in a classroom setup. Out of the classroom there is a less chance to have English language exposure for the learner but only to have an exposure of English in code mixing form.

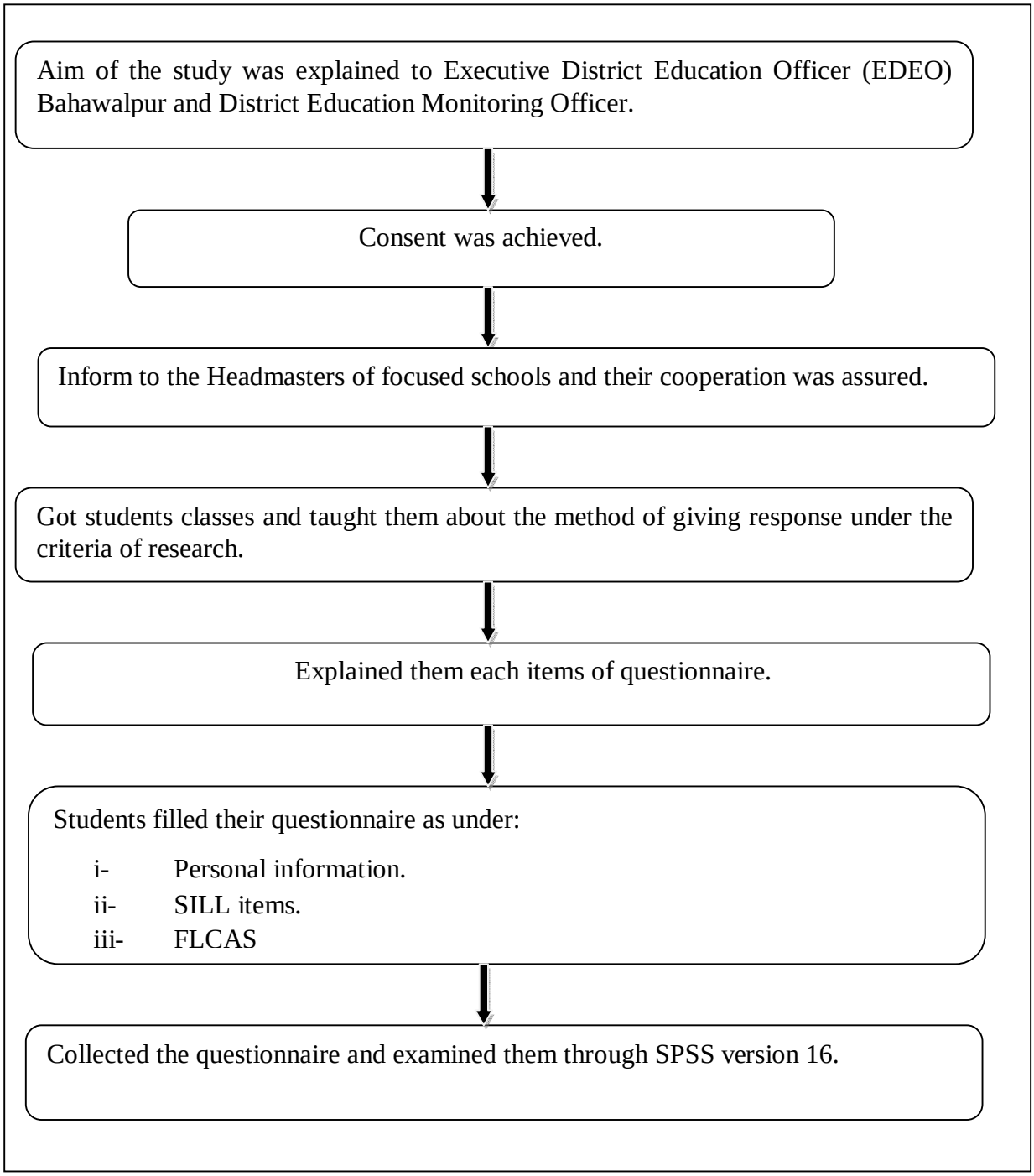
The researcher selected various schools in the area of Bahawalpur to have an easily access to the participants of the study.

In the present study researchers selected only 10^{th} class. Student belonging to private, public, urban, rural, science and non science students as they have the experience of 9^{th} class board examination with significant variations in their results. In the current study 500 total questionnaires were distributed and demonstration was given to the participants, out of which 476 were properly responded, returned by the participants.

3.9 Data Collection Procedure

To reach the participants for the research, the researcher approached the Executive District Education Officer (EDEO) and explained the aim of the research and method of data collection from the focused schools and classes in those schools. The permission of the authority was shown to the headmasters of the selected schools and their cooperation was assured. The data was gathered according to the program as shown in the diagram.

Figure 3.1: Flow chart of data collection

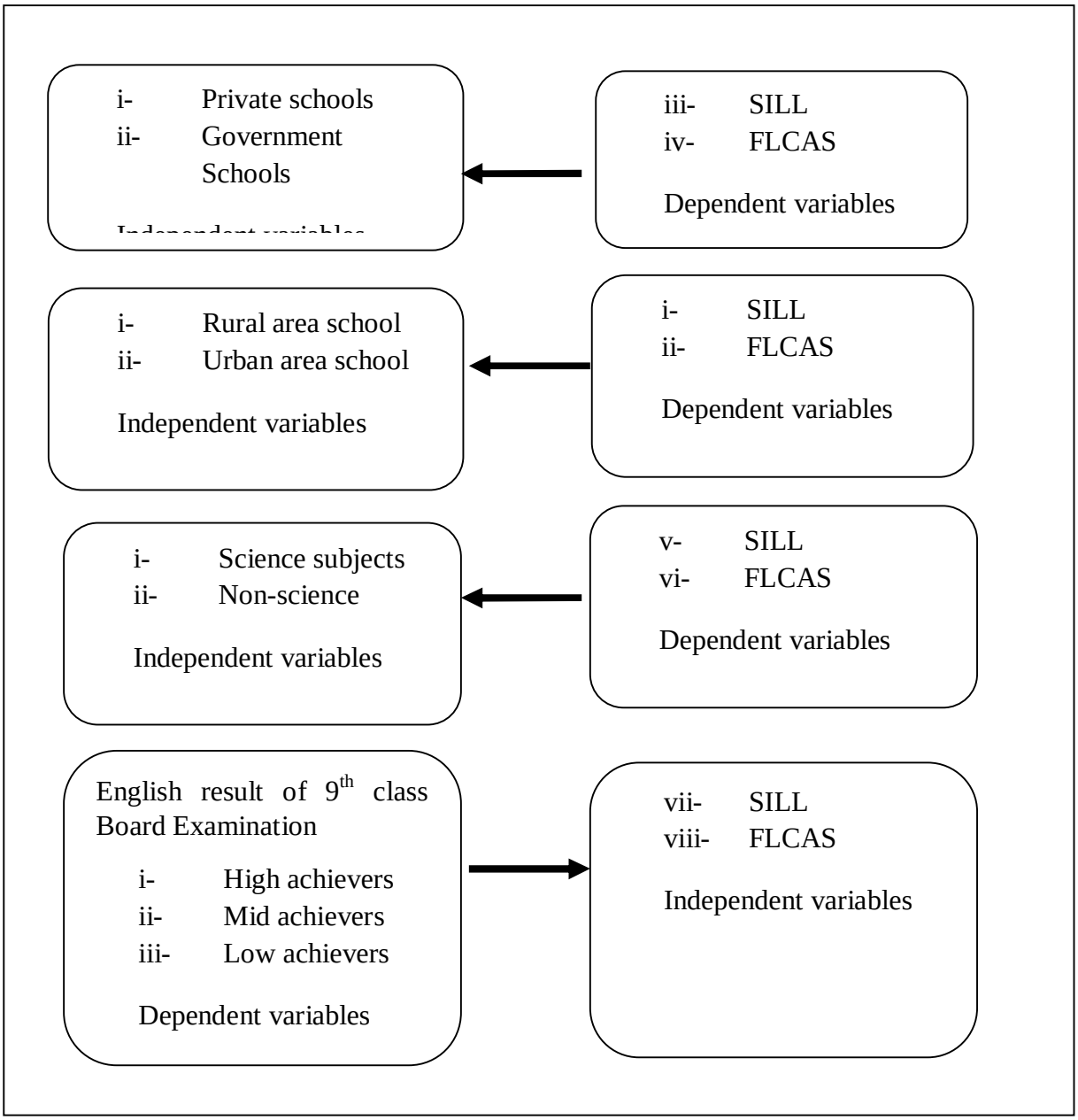


3.10 Measurements and Variables

The purpose of the present study was to evaluate the influence of psychological factors especially anxiety on the use of language learning strategies and English language achievement. A plethora of researches conducted on language learning strategies with reference to social and psychological variables in the second and foreign language learning

are on the record (Skehan, 1991). SILL is one of the most popular questionnaires used in the area of language learning.

Figure 3.2: Variables of Current Research



SILL was developed by Oxford (1990) and is mainly divided into two categories of direct and indirect strategies further divided into six categories. Memory strategies are for identification and regaining of vocabulary, cognitive strategies for understanding and creating texts, compensation strategies for balancing the lack of the knowledge,

metacognitive for evaluating the learning process, affective strategies for controlling the affective state of anxiety and social strategies learning with the social contacts.

SILL has been used in wide-reaching studies to explore L2 learners overall learning strategy use, factors social and psychological, L2 achievement and training for the use of strategies (Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Yang, 1999; Wharton, 2000; Griffth, 2003; Riazi & Rahimi, 2005; Nisbat et al., 2005 and Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006).

The instrument for the above stated studies was calculated for the purpose of reliability and validity by Oxford & Burry-Stock (1995). Cronbach's alpha values has been achieved beyond the acceptable alpha values of .60 to .70 in most of the studies (e.g. .94 Yang, 1999; Hsiao & Oxford, 2004; .93 in Park, 1997; Robson, 2001; .86 in Arabic translation version of Khalil, 2005). A confirmatory factor analysis was performed for the validation of the SILL by Park (2011, p. 125-132).

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS

4.1 The Purpose and the Summary of the Chapter

The purpose of this research study is multifold. The first is to explore what language learning strategies are frequently used by Pakistani high school students, second, to find out the anxiety level among different high school students of Pakistan, and third to investigate the interaction of anxiety on the use of language learning strategies. High school students are divided into the following subgroups for the purpose of the present research:

- High school students belonging to Public & Private schools in Pakistan.
- High school students belonging to Rural & Urban schools of Pakistan.
- Pakistan high school students belonging to Science & Non-Science subjects.
- Pakistani high school students having High Proficiency in English & Low Proficiency in English.

The current study contained following questions with analogous null hypothesis:

1. Which language learning strategy or groups of strategies do students report using most frequently?
2. How does anxiety affect the use of language learning strategies?
3. What are the variations in the extent of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between private and government school students?
4. What are the deviations in the extent of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between rural and urban high school students?
5. What are the differences in the extent of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between science and non-science students?

6. What are the variations in the degree of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level of low and high English proficiency students?

Based on above mentioned research questions, this research examines the following null hypothesis:

1. There is no significant effect of anxiety on the use of LLS.
2. There is no difference of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between private and government school students.
3. There is no variation of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between urban and rural high school students.
4. There is no difference of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between science and non-science high school students.
5. There is no difference of LLS use and the interaction of anxiety level between high and low English proficiency students.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the data analysis and interpretation to explore the answers of research questions mentioned in Chapter No 1. Statistics is considered as a technique dealing with data. According to this definition statistics is a tool linked with the collection organization and analysis of facts in numerical form (Runyon, Audry Haber, 1980). This chapter is associated with data analysis. Data was collected from 476 students belonging to rural, urban, public, private, science and non-science backgrounds. For the purpose of data analysis through a software tool SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 16.0 was selected. Data was inserted and stored in SPSS Grid Sheet. This stored data was analyzed through statistical tests like ANOVA (a one way analysis of variance) and T-Test Statistics was used to evaluate the differences in the use of LLS for different variables. To find out the reliability of the data Chronbach's Alpha Coefficient was applied. To find out the correlation of LLS and psychological factor

(anxiety) Pearson's Coefficient was implied. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, means and standard deviations) were used to evaluate the LLS application by the students. To evaluate above mentioned six research questions, a background information questionnaire attached with Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Leaning (SILL) comprises of 50 items, and Horwitz's et al (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), consisted on 33 items were administered with 476 high school students in Pakistan. In the present study, quantitative statistics with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme Windows (Win8) version 16.0 to address participants' individual background information plus responses on research questions. Students were grouped as rural school students (100), urban school students (376), government school students (274), private school students (202), science subject students (317), non-science students (159), high English language proficient students (301) & low English language proficient students (175), based on their English result of 9^{th} class Board Examination.

For the purpose of a symmetrical arrangement of results this chapter has been divided into two sections. First deals with the demographic characteristics of the participants. Frequency and percentage of demographic variables were indicated in the tabular forms pursued by their descriptive explanations. Narrative description is also mentioned along with each table.

4.2 Section-1: Demographic Data

4.2.1 Father qualification of the participants

Table 4.1: Frequency and Percentage of father qualification of the participants (N=476)

Variables Father Qualification	F	%
Illiterate	82	17.2
Primary	31	6.5
Middle	58	12.2
Matric	101	21.2
Inter	47	9.9
Bachelor	66	13.9
Master	90	18.9

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.1: Father qualification of the participants

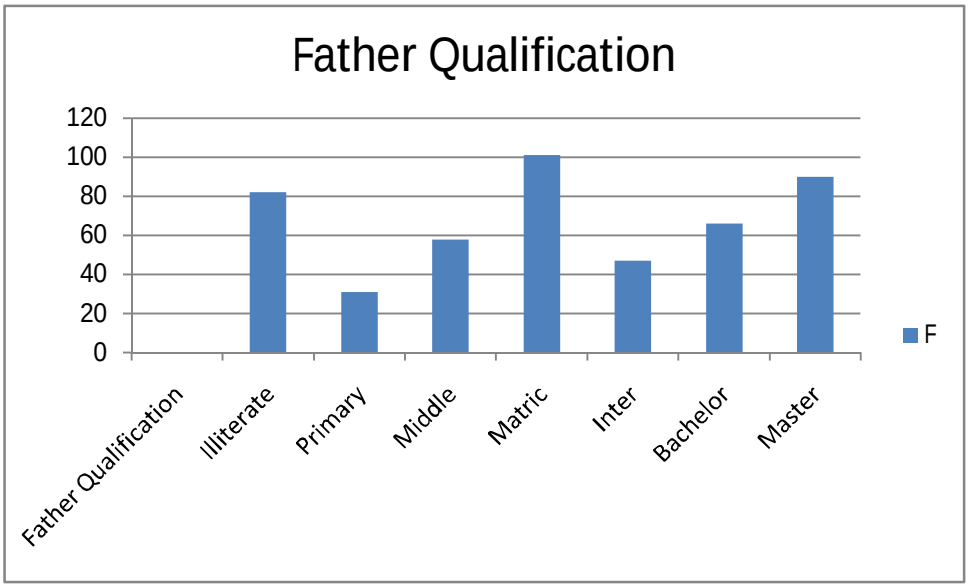


Table 4.1 indicated the father qualification of the participants varied from a literate to master degree. The majority was having matriculation qualification with the frequency 101 with the percentage 21% and 17 percent were illiterate. 31 (7%) fathers of the respondents belong to the primary qualification category. 58 (12 %) are having middle qualification. 66% (14%) fathers belong to bachelor qualification category. 90 fathers (19%) belong to master category and 47 (10%) to intermediate qualification.

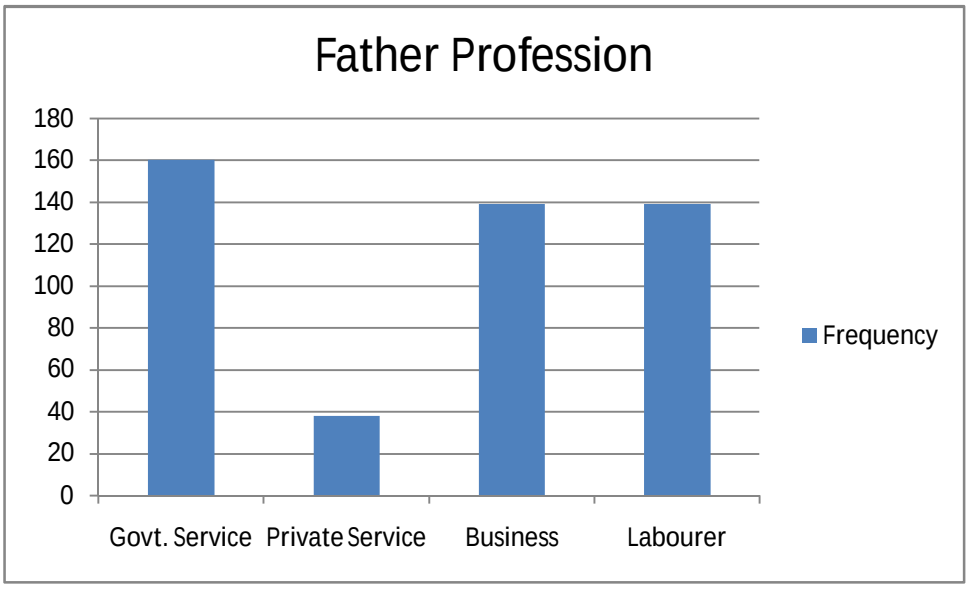
4.2.2 Father profession of the participants

Table 4.2: Frequency and Percentage of father profession of the participants (N=476)

Father Profession	Frequency	%
Govt. Service	160	33.6
Private Service	38	8.0
Business	139	29.2
Labourer	139	29.2

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.2: Father profession of the participants



The table 4.2 reveals father profession of the participants into four categories. First government servants, 166 (34%), second in private services 38 (8%), third & fourth professional categories, business and labourer are equal in numbers 139 (29%).

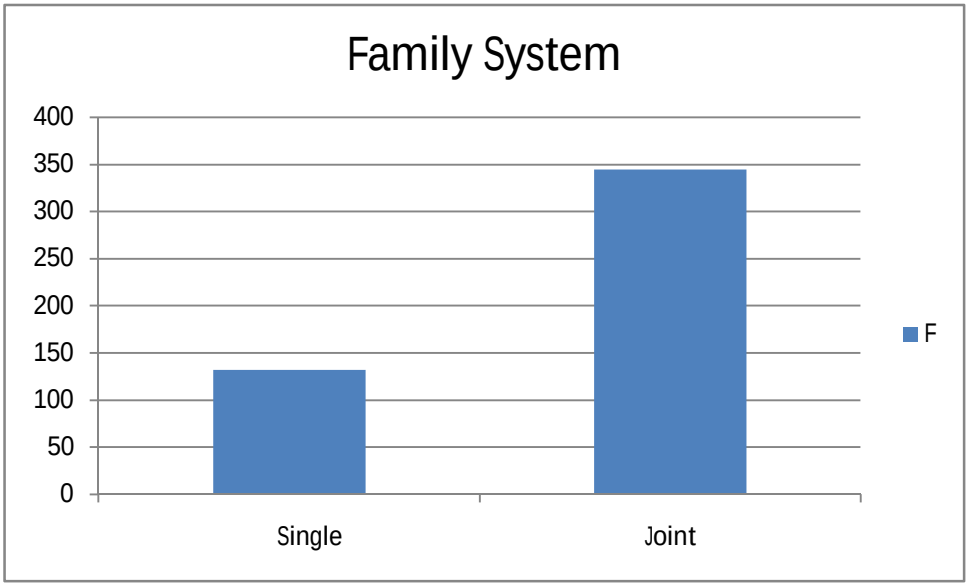
4.2.3 Family system of the participants

Table 4.3: Frequency and Percentage of family system of the participants (N=476)

Family System	F	%
Single	132	27.7
Joint	344	72.3

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.3: Family system of the participants



The table 4.3 displays the family systems of the participants in which 344 (72%) having joint family system and 132 (28%) with single family system.

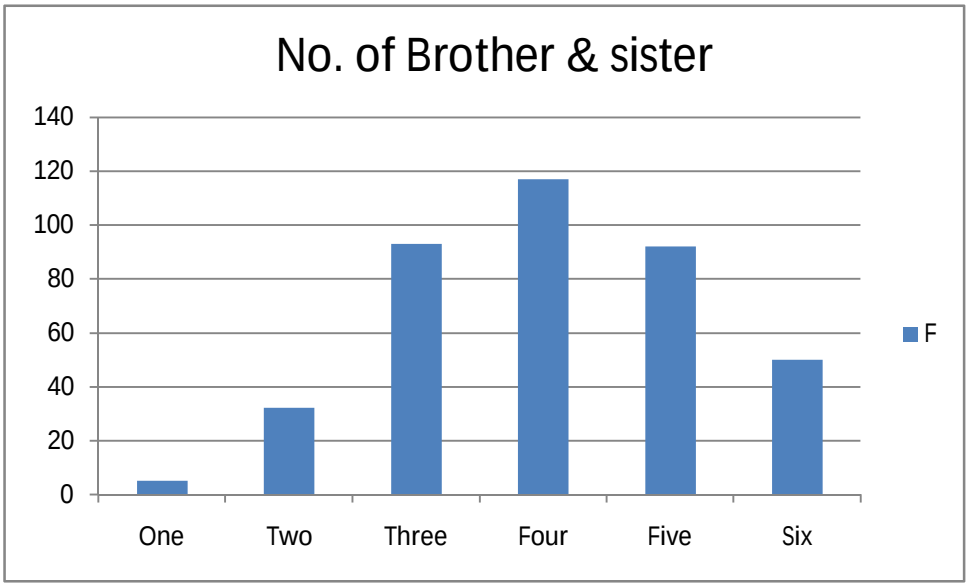
4.2.4 Numbers of brothers and sisters of the participants

Table 4.4: Frequency and Percentage of numbers of brothers and sisters of the participants (N=476)

No. Brother & sister	F	%
One	5	1
Two	32	6.7
Three	93	19.5
Four	117	24.5
Five	92	19.3
Six	50	10.5
>six	87	18.2

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.4: Numbers of brothers and sisters of the participants



From the table 4.4 it is revealed that most of the participants are four brothers and sisters with frequency of 117 (25%) and only one brother and sister of five participants with percentage one. Participants with two brothers and sisters were 32 (7%), three 93 (20%), five 92 (19%), six 50 (11%) and above six brothers and sisters 87 (18%).

4.2.5 Birth order of the participants

Table 4.5: Frequency and Percentage of birth order of the participants (N=476)

Birth Order	F	%
First	142	29.8
Second	99	20.8
Third	96	20.2
Fourth	61	12.8
Fifth	36	7.6
Sixth	16	3.4
>six	26	5.5

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.5: Birth order of the participants

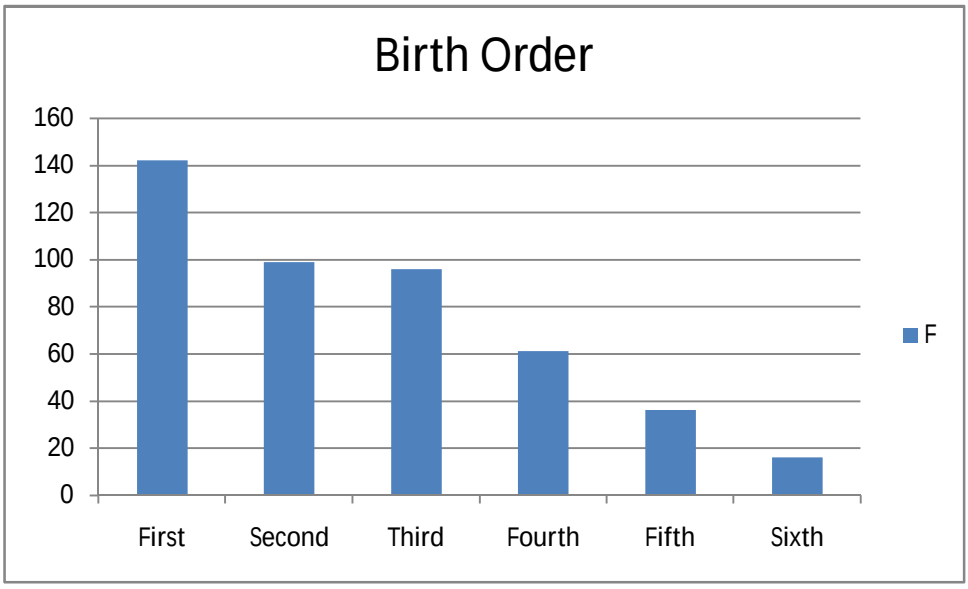


Table 4.5 represents birth order of the participants and 142 (30%) have first birth order, 26 (65) have above than sixth birth order which influence the proficiency of the students.

4.2.6 Mother qualification of the participants

Table 4.6: Frequency and Percentage of mother qualification of the participants (N=476)

Mother Qualification	F	%
Illiterate	181	38.0
Primary	33	6.9
Middle	46	9.7
Matric	67	14.1
Intermediate	43	9.0
Bachelor	50	10.5
Masters	56	11.8

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.6: Father qualification of the participants

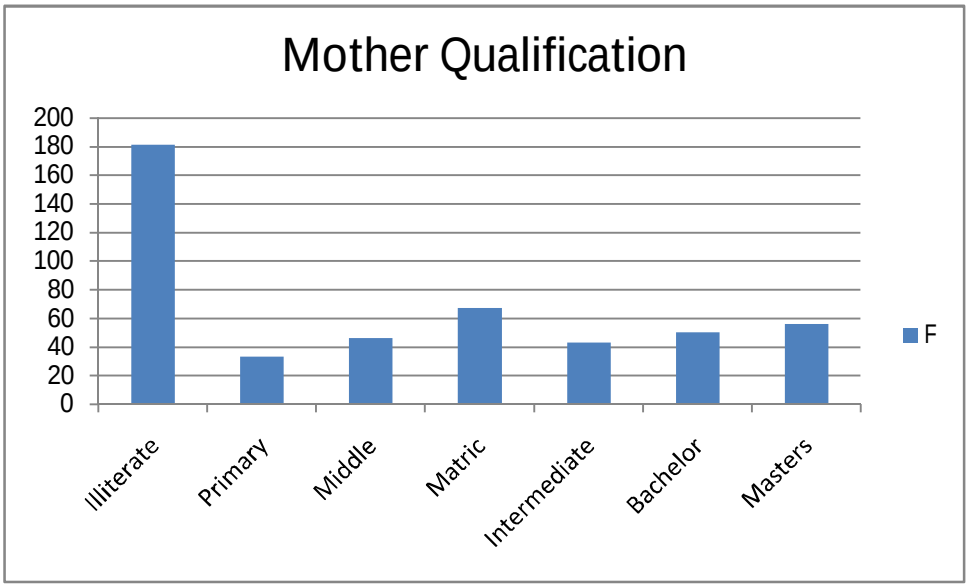


Table 4.6 shows the mother qualification of the participants varied from illiterate to master degree. The majority was illiterate with the frequency 181 with the percentage 38% and 12 percent were having master degree. 33 (7%) mothers of the respondents belong to the primary qualification category. 46 (10 %) are having middle qualification. 50% (11%) mothers belong to bachelor qualification category and 43 mothers (9%) belong to intermediate qualification category.

4.2.7 Mother profession of the participants

Table 4.7: Frequency and Percentage of mother profession of the participants (N=476)

Mother Profession	F	%
Housewife	422	88.7
Govt. Job	51	10.7
Private Job	3	.6

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.7: Mother profession of the participants

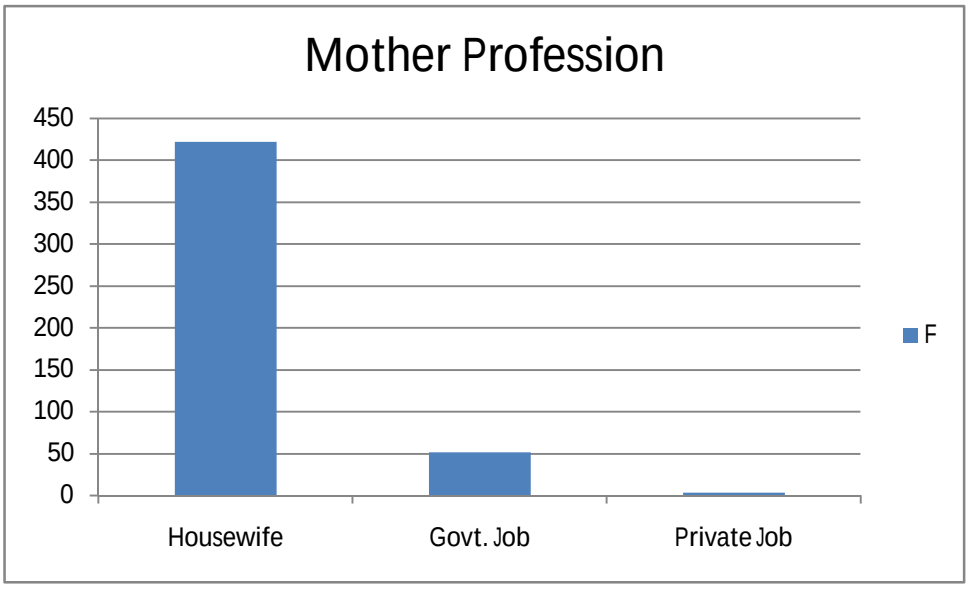


Table 4.7 reflects mother profession of the participants in which 422 (89%) belonging to housewife category, 51 (11%) belong to government services and 3 (1%) belongs to private services.

4.2.8 Mother tongue of the participants

Table 4.8: Frequency and Percentage of mother tongue of the participants (N=476)

Mother Tongue	F	%
Urdu	147	30.9
Saraiki	204	42.9
Punjabi	117	24.6
Others	8	1.7

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.8: Mother tongue of the participants

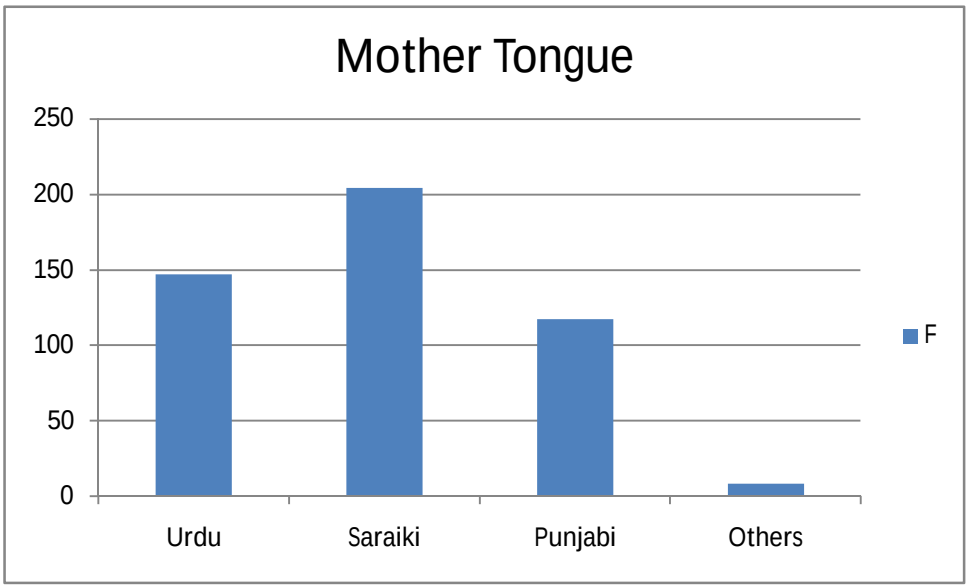


Table 4.8 represents the mother tongue of the participants in which 204 (43%) are Saraiki, 147(31%) Urdu, 117 (25%) Punjabi and few having other mother tongues.

4.2.9 Subjects, organization and school area of the participants

Table 4.9: Frequency and Percentage of subjects, organization and school area of the participants (N=476)

Subjects	F	%
Science	317	66.6
Non-science	159	33.4
Organization	**F**	**%**
Govt	274	57.6
Private	202	42.4
Area	**F**	**%**
Urban	376	79.0
Rural	100	21.0

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.9: Subjects, organization and school area of the participants

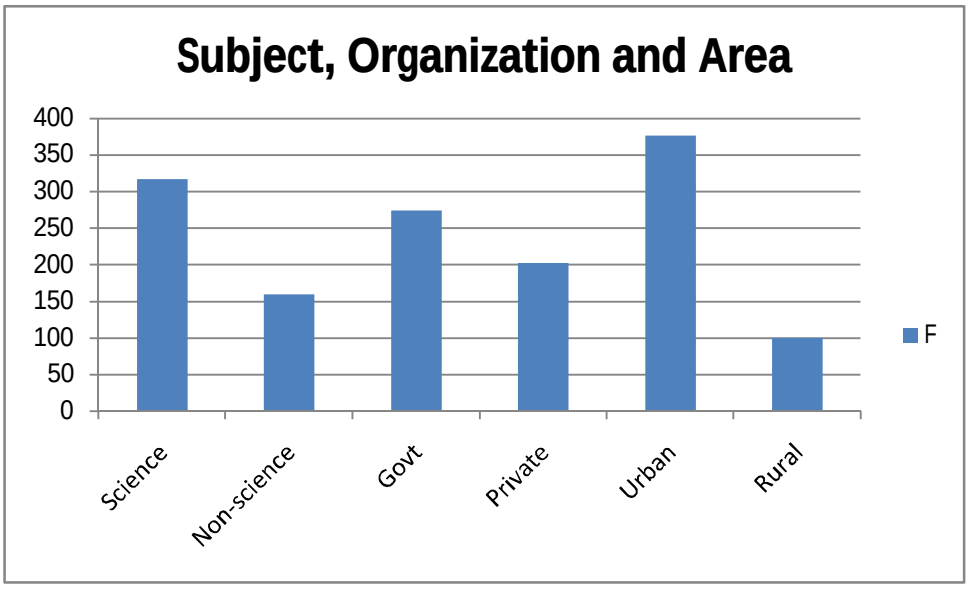


Table 4.9 indicates main variables of the study like science and non-science subjects of the participants in which 317 (67%) were science students, 159 (33%) non-science students. It also shows organization of the students in which 274 (58%) were government school student and 202 (42%) were private school students. This table also indicates area of the schools in which urban school students were 376 (79%) and rural school students were 99 (21%).

4.2.10 English result of 9th class of the participants

Table 4.10: Frequency and Percentage of English result of 9th class of the participants (N=476)

9th Result	F	%
30-40	27	5.7
40-50	65	13.7
50-60	97	20.4
60-70	90	18.9
70-80	75	15.8
80-90	67	14.1
90-100	55	11.6

Note: The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.10: English result of 9th class of the participants

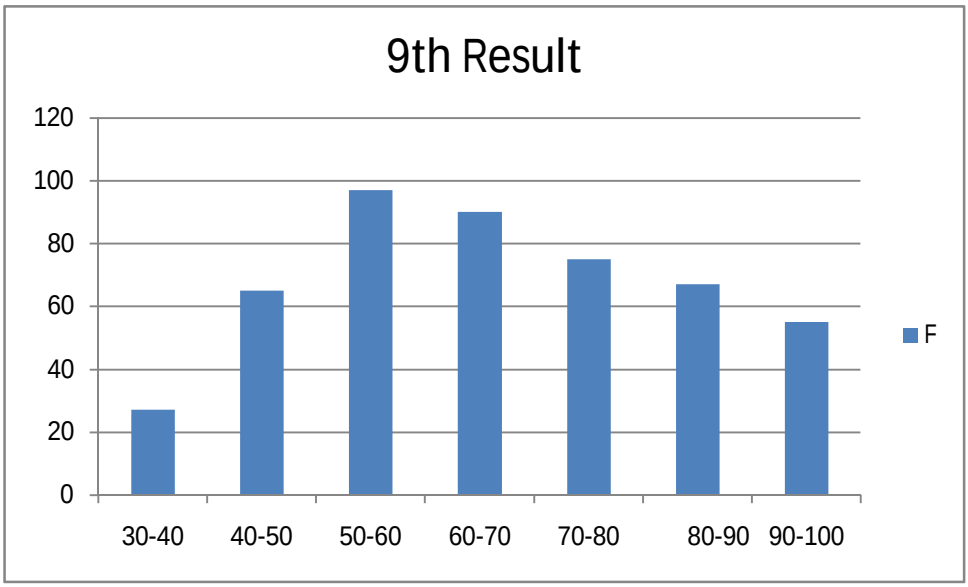


Table 4.10 indicates frequency and percentage of the 9th class English results of the respondents.27(6%) participants have result in between 30% to 40%, 65(14%) have English results between 40%to 50%, 97(20%) have English results between 50%to 60%,90(19%) have English results between 60%to 70%,75(16%) have English results between 70%to 80%,67(14%) have English results between 80%to 90% and 65(14%) have English results between 90%to 100%.

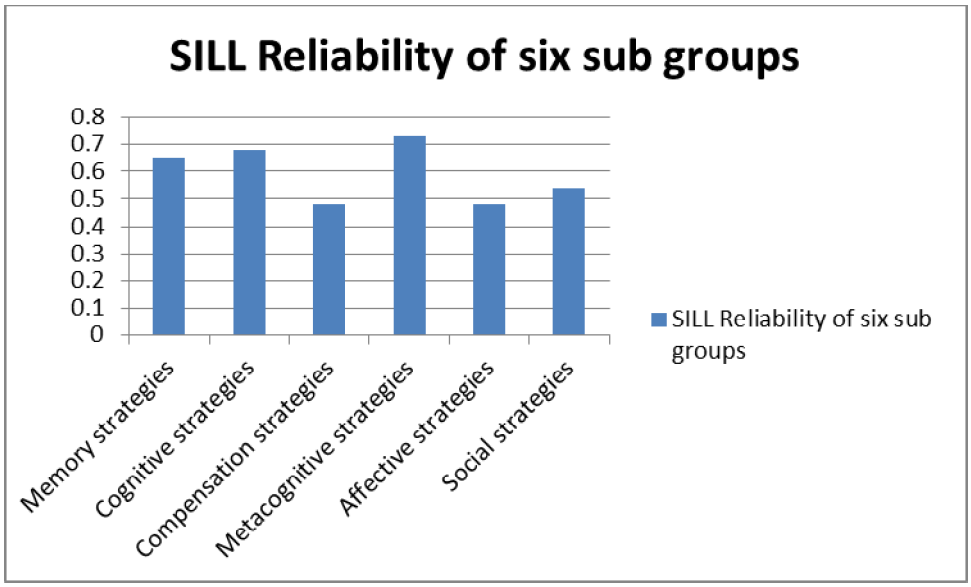
4.3 Section-2

Table 4.11: Reliability of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) = .883

Language Learning Strategies	Reliability
Memory strategies	0.65
Cognitive strategies	0.68
Compensation strategies	0.48
Metacognitive strategies	0.73
Affective strategies	0.48
Social strategies	0.54

Table and figure 4.11 show the reliability of six SILL categories, memory strategies (0.65), cognitive strategies (0.68), compensation strategies (0.48), metacognitive strategies (0.73), affective strategies (0.48) and social strategies (0.54). Moreover, the overall SILL reliability is 0.883 which is high than acceptable value.

Figure 4.11: Reliability of six sub groups of SILL



4.4 LLS use Mean Score criteria Oxford's (1990)

Table 4.12: Language Learning Strategy Use Mean Score Criteria for Comprehension Adopted from Oxford's (1990)

High	Always or almost always used 4.5 to 5.0 Usually used 3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometime used 2.5 to 3.4
Low	Generally not used 1 .5 to 2.4 Never or almost never used 1.0 to 1.4

Table 4.12 leads towards the mean score; a criteria adopted from Oxford (1990) having the object of enhanced comprehension of the overall LLS use and use of six LLS categories. For the purpose to interpret the descriptive statistics of LLS use it was suggested by Green &Oxford (1995) if more than 50% respondents give their response in between 4 or 5 of LLS use, the result would be as frequent use of overall strategy , if the responses of more than 20% to 49% participants are in 4 or 5 it would reflect moderate use in the overall strategies use. Less than 20% result with 4 or 5 would be not frequent result of overall strategy use. Such type of taxonomy has been a well-liked statistical analysis of LLS use

4.5 Overall Strategy Use of the Participants

Table 4.13: Showing Frequency of Students' reported on six strategies use

	No. of students	Mean	SD
Overall Strategy Use	476	2.38	0.61

In the table 4.13 the descriptive statistics indicated that the participants use a low degree of strategy use but overall near to the medium having the value (M=2.38, SD=0.61).

4.6 Frequency of Students Reported on six Strategies Use

Table 4.14: Showing Frequency of Students' reported on six strategies use

Learning strategy	No. of students	Mean	SD	Frequency category
Memory strategies	476	2.36	0.61	Low use
Cognitive strategies	476	2.35	0.45	Low use
Compensation strategies	476	2.40	0.64	Low use
Metacognitive strategies	476	2.12	0.73	Low use
Affective strategies	476	2.52	0.71	Medium use
Social strategies	476	2.51	0.88	Medium use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.12: Showing learning strategy use of six sub groups.

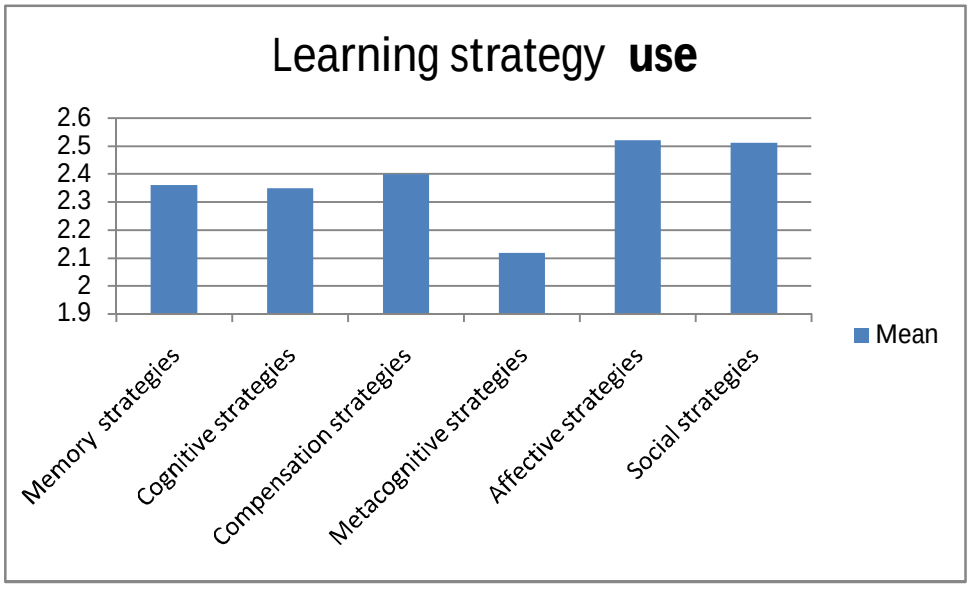


Table 4.14 and Fig 4.12 showing all six strategy categories in the present study were used as low to medium range the most preferred strategy use was affective strategies (M=2.52, SD=0.71) and social strategies (M=2.51, SD=0.88). The lowest strategies use categories are compensation strategies (M=2.40, SD=0.45), memory strategies (M=2.36,

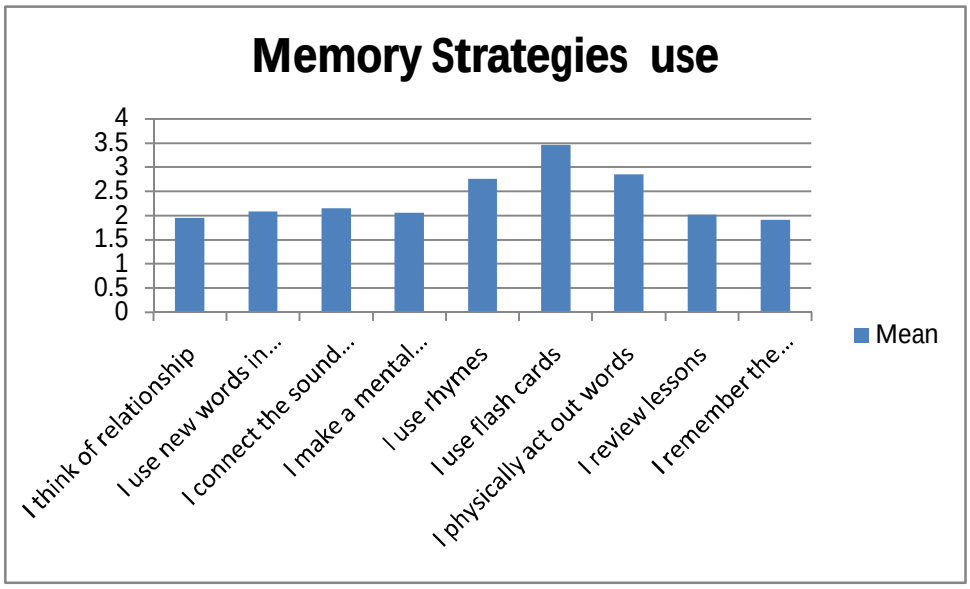
SD=0.61), cognitive strategies (M=2.35, SD=0.45) and metacognitive strategies (M=2.12, SD=0.73). High range of strategy use was not evaluated in any of the six sub categories of the LLS.

Table 4.15: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Memory Strategies

Item No.	Memory Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
1	I think of relationship	33.0	51.5	6.3	6.5	2.7	1.95	0.95	Low use
2	I use new words in sentence	31.1	49.2	3.2	12.8	3.8	2.09	1.02	Low use
3	I connect the sound and image	30.5	46.8	5.7	11.6	5.5	2.15	1.14	Low use
4	I make a mental picture of the situation	27.7	54.0	6.9	7.4	4.0	2.06	1.00	Low use
5	I use rhymes	16.2	38.0	9.0	27.5	9.2	2.76	1.23	Medium use
6	I use flash cards	12.0	20.6	4.8	34.9	27.7	3.46	1.40	Medium use
7	I physically act out words	18.7	32.4	7.4	28.2	13.4	2.85	1.34	Medium use
8	I review lessons	35.3	45.6	3.6	12.2	3.2	2.02	1.08	Low use
9	I remember the location of the words on the page	37.0	48.1	4.2	7.1	3.6	1.92	1.08	Low use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.13: Memory strategies use



In the table 4.15 & Fig 4.13 the frequencies (%) of memory strategies, means and standard deviations showed the low use of memory strategies with the exception of three strategy items; I use rhymes to remember new English words (M=2.76, SD=1.23), I use

flash cards to remember new English words (M=3.46, SD=1.40) and I physically act out new English language words (M=2.85, SD=1.34). 84% of the respondents reported that they never or almost never thought of relationship between what they already knew and new things in English language (M=1.95, SD=0.95). 80% of the participants responded that they never or almost never use new words in sentence so they can remember them (M=2.09, SD=1.02). 77% of the respondents reported that they never or almost never connect the sound with the image or picture of the word to remember. 82% of the respondents reported that they never or almost never make a mental picture of a situation in which a word might be used. In addition more than 80% of the respondents reported that they never or usually do not review English language lesson often. 85% of the respondents responded that they never or almost never remember new English word or phrase by remembering their location on the page, on the board or at the street sign.

Table 4.16: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Cognitive Strategies

Item No.	Cognitive Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
10	I say or write words several times	26.9	40.8	4.8	21.8	5.7	2.39	1.25	Low use
11	I try to talk like native speakers	32.8	41.8	4.0	12.6	8.8	2.23	1.27	Low use
12	I practice the sounds	27.1	47.5	6.5	14.3	4.6	2.22	1.13	Low use
13	I use the words in different ways	22.7	52.3	5.5	14.3	5.3	2.27	1.12	Low use
14	I start conversation	22.1	39.1	7.8	21.0	10.1	2.58	1.31	Medium use
15	I watch language shows or go to movies	32.4	33.0	4.6	16.0	14.1	2.46	1.44	Medium use
16	I read pleasure	4.5	43.3	4.6	48.4	3.2	1.90	1.03	Low use
17	I write notes, messages and letters	33.2	40.1	5.3	16.0	5.5	2.20	1.21	Low use
18	First I skim read and then read carefully	29.0	43.9	4.8	16.8	5.5	2.26	1.19	Low use
19	I look for similar words in my own language	23.7	48.5	8.4	14.9	4.4	2.28	1.11	Low use
20	I try to find patterns	18.3	52.7	10.9	14.1	3.8	2.32	1.05	Low use
21	I find the meaning by dividing the words in parts	24.8	48.5	4.6	15.8	6.1	2.30	1.18	Low use
22	I do not translate	11.1	34.7	6.1	29.8	18.3	3.09	1.35	Medium use
23	I make summaries of the information	21.2	47.3	10.9	15.1	5.5	2.36	1.13	Low use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.14: Cognitive strategies use

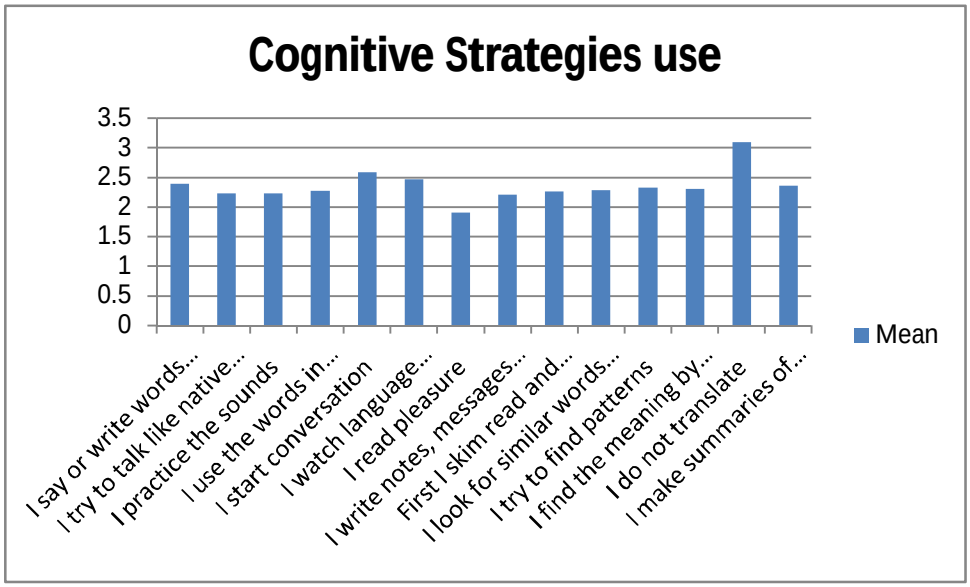


Table 4.16 & Fig 4.14 display the frequencies percentage, means and standard deviation of the cognitive strategies items. Among 14 items only 3 items are in medium use. Strategy item number 14, I start conversations in the English language (M=2.58, SD=1.31), item number 15, I watch English television shows, spoken in English or go to English movies (M=2.46, SD=1.44) and item number 22, I try not to translate English language word by word (M=3.09, SD=1.35) are medium in use. All remaining items, number 10 , I say or write new English words several times (67% never or do not usually use), number 11, I try to talk like native English speakers (74% never or do not usually use), number 12, I practice the sound of English (74% never or do not usually use), number 13, I use the English words I know in different ways (75% never or do not usually use), number 16, I read for pleasure in English (48% never or do not usually use), number 17, I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English (73% never or do not usually use), number 18, I first skim an English passage then go back and read carefully (73% never or do not usually use), number 19, I look for words in my own language that are similar to new English words (73% never or do not usually use), number 20, I try to find patterns in English (71% never or do not usually use), number 21, I find the meanings of English words by dividing it into

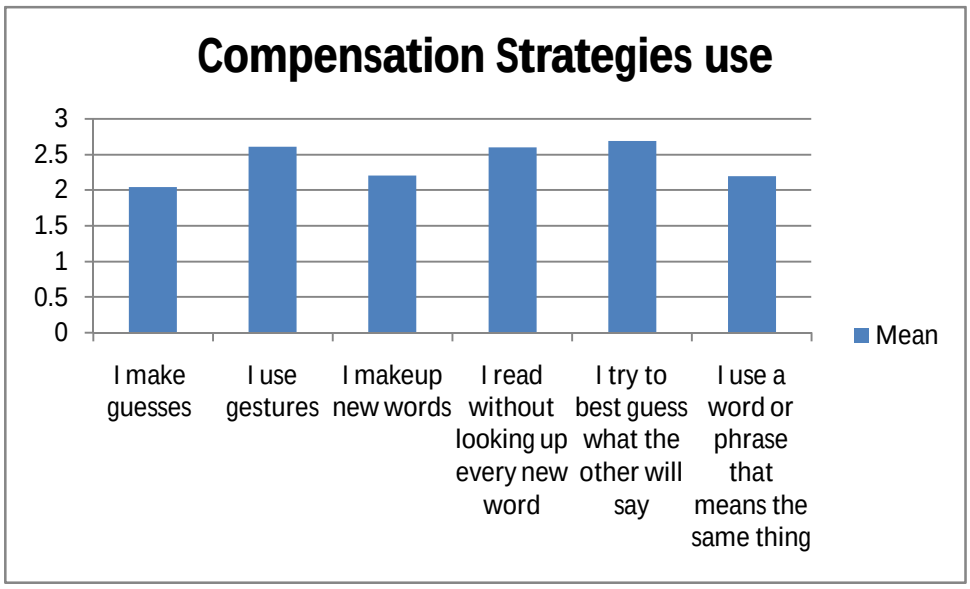
parts that I understand (73% never or do not usually use) and item number 23, I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English (64% never or do not usually use).

Table 4.17: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Compensation Strategies

Item No.	Compensation Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
24	I make guesses	25.8	57.6	6.3	7.6	2.7	2.04	.933	Low use
25	I use gestures	15.5	44.7	11.3	20.2	8.2	2.610	1.203	Medium use
26	I makeup new words	2.4	52.1	5.5	14.3	3.6	2.20	1.075	Low use
27	I read without looking up every new word	22.9	39.1	4.6	22.1	11.3	2.60	1.351	Medium use
28	I try to best guess what the other will say	13.2	43.1	13.0	23.1	7.6	2.69	1.183	Medium use
29	I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	24.6	53.2	6.5	11.1	4.8	2.19	1.075	Low use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.15: Compensation strategies use



As displayed in table 4.17 & Fig 4.15 Compensation strategies, out of 6, 3 items are medium in use; item number 25, When I can't think of a word during the conversation in the English language I use gestures (M=2.61, SD= 1.20), item number 27, I read English language without looking up every new word (M=2.60, SD=1.35) and item number 28, I try to guess what the other person will say next in English. However, 83% of the respondents

reported that they never or almost never make guesses about unfamiliar English words. 55% of the participants never or almost never make up new words if they do not knew the right ones in English and 78% of them never or usually do not think of the English word having the same meanings.

Table 4.18: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Meta-cognitive Strategies

Item No.	Meta-cognitive Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
30	I try to find as many ways as I can	30.0	50.8	5.3	10.5	3.4	2.06	1.04	Low use
31	I notice my mistakes and used information	44.3	45.8	2.7	4.8	2.3	1.75	.90	Low use
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking	41.1	42.0	2.9	4.2	2.7	1.71	.92	Low use
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner	49.4	42.0	3.8	3.8	1.1	1.65	.81	Low use
34	I plan my schedule so that I will have enough	21.4	34.2	7.1	29.0	8.2	2.68	1.31	Medium use
35	I look for people I can talk	24.8	43.9	8.0	15.8	7.6	2.37	1.23	Low use
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible	21.4	45.8	8.6	18.5	5.7	2.06	1.04	Low use
37	I have clear goals for improving	31.9	49.2	5.9	9.7	3.4	1.75	.90	Low use
38	I think about my progress in learning	25.2	40.8	10.5	17.9	5.7	1.71	.92	Low use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.16: Meta-cognitive strategies use

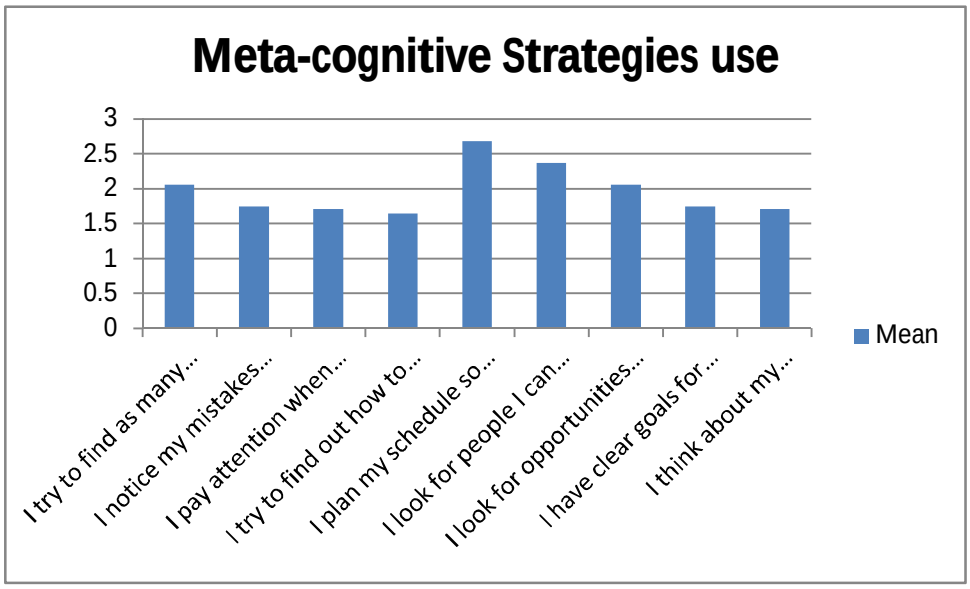


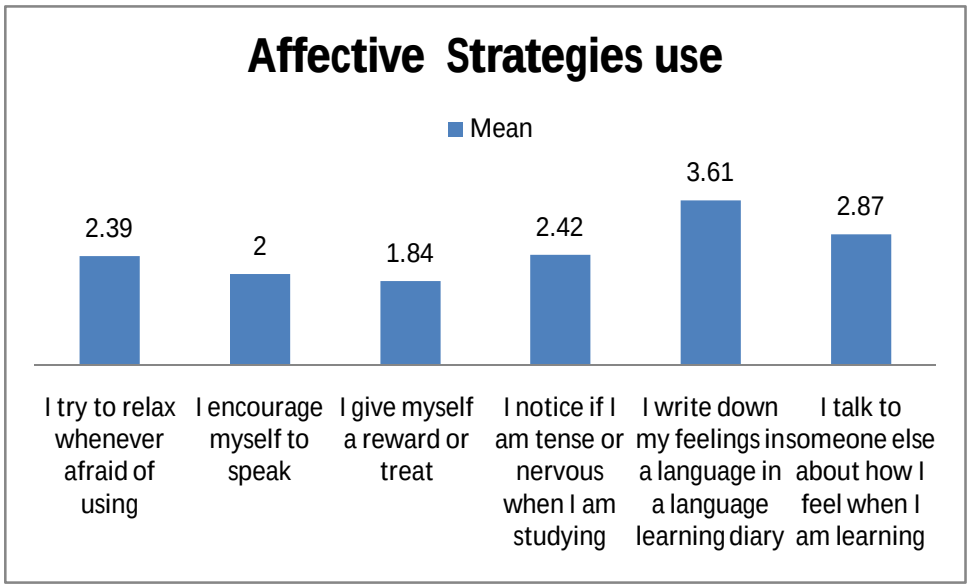
Table 4.18 & Fig 4.16 represent the medium use of metacognitive strategies through the frequencies (%), means and standard deviations. Only item is in medium use; item number 34, I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English (M=2.68, SD=1.31). While all other items were low in use as item number 30, I try to find as many ways as I can to use in my English (81% never or do not usually use), item number 31, I noticed my English mistakes and used that information to help me do better (90% never or do not usually use), item number 32, I pay attention when someone is speaking English (83% never or do not usually use), item number 33, I try to find out how to be better learner of English (91% never or do not usually use), item number 35, I look for the people I can talk in English (69% never or do not usually use), item number 36, I look for the opportunities to read as much as possible in English (67% never or do not usually use), item number 37, I have clear goals for improving my English skills (81% never or do not usually use) and item number 38, I think about my progress in learning English (66% never or do not usually use).

Table 4.19: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Affective Strategies

Item No.	Affective Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
39	I try to relax whenever afraid of using	22.1	47.7	5.9	17.0	7.1	2.39	1.21	Low use
40	I encourage myself to speak	33.2	48.3	6.7	9.0	2.7	2.00	1.01	Low use
41	I give myself a reward or treat	45.8	38.4	5.0	7.8	2.9	1.84	1.03	Low use
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying	20.4	47.1	7.8	19.7	5.0	2.42	1.17	Medium use
43	I write down my feelings in a language in a language learning diary	6.7	20.4	7.8	35.7	29.4	3.61	1.28	High use
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning	14.3	37.2	8.0	28.6	12.0	2.87	1.30	Medium use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.17: Affective Strategies use



Form the table 4.19 & Fig 4.17 it is clear that affective strategies are in three categories, low, medium and high use. Item number 43, I write down my feelings in a language learning diary (M=3.61, SD=1.28) is high in use (65% always or almost use). While item number 42, I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using

English (M=2.42, SD=1.17) and item number, 44, I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English (M=2.87, SD=1.30) are medium in use. All other items, item number 39, I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English (70% never or do not usually use), item number 40, I encourage myself to speak English when I am afraid of making mistake (81% never or do not usually use) and item number 41, I give myself a reward when I do well in English (84% never or do not usually use) are low in use.

Table 4.20: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Social Strategies

Item No.	Social Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
45	If I do not understand	32.2	47.1	4.6	9.9	5.3	2.07	1.11	Low use
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	31.3	43.5	6.3	12.0	6.9	2.20	1.20	Low use
47	I practice English with other students	22.5	41.0	6.5	21.4	8.6	2.53	1.28	Medium use
48	I ask for help from English speakers	26.7	42.9	4.4	16.6	9.5	2.39	1.29	Low use
49	I ask questions in English	19.5	36.6	7.6	26.9	9.5	2.70	1.36	Medium use
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	18.1	26.3	6.3	18.1	31.3	3.18	1.55	Medium use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Figure 4.18: Social strategies use

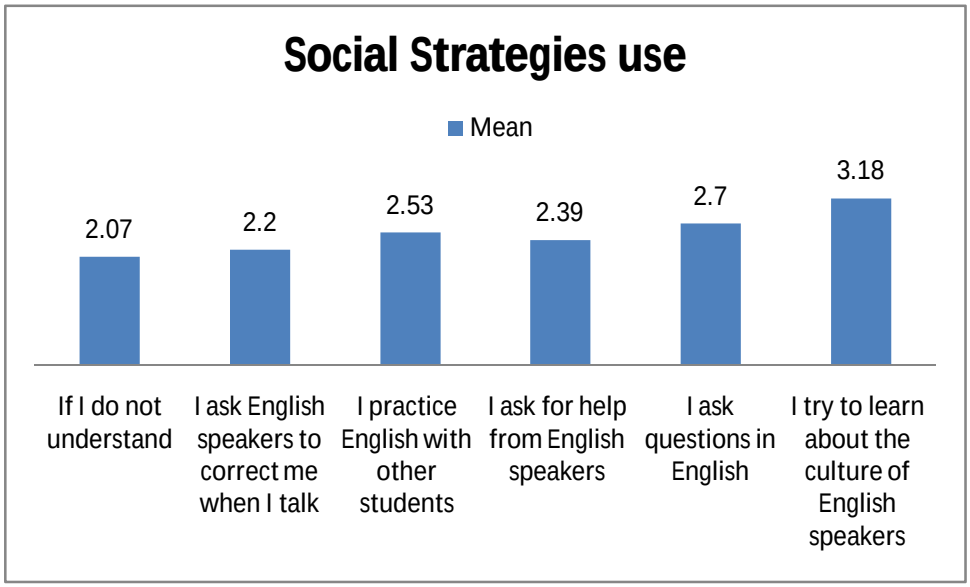


Table 4.20 & Fig 4.18 reflect medium as well as low use of social strategies through frequencies (%), means and standard deviations. Item number 47, I practice English with other students (M=2.53, SD=1.28), item number, 49, I ask questions in English (M=2.70, SD=1.36) and item number 50, I try to learn about the culture of English speakers (M=3.18, SD=1.55) are medium in use. However, item number 45, If I do not understand something in English I ask other person to slow down or say it again (79% never or do not usually use), item number 46, I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk (74% never or do not usually use) and item number 47, I practice English with other students (70% never or do not usually use).

Table 4.21: Mean and Standard Deviation of Overall Anxiety Level

	No. of students	Mean	SD	Frequency category
Overall Anxiety Level	476	2.80	0.61	Medium level

Table 4.21 reflects overall anxiety levels of the participants which is medium level (M=2.38, SD=0.61).

Table 4.22: Reliability Statistics of FLCAS

Cronbach's Alpha	.852

Table 4.22 indicates the reliability statistics test, the purpose of which is to find whether the consistency of the participants for FLCAS is in considerable range or not. The reliability with Cronbach's Alpha coefficient with 33 items is .852, which suggests that the scale score has acceptable consistency is responses among 33 items in the current study.

Table 4.23: Mean and Standard Deviation of Three Categories of Anxiety Level

FLCAS Sub-categories	No. of students	Mean	SD	Frequency category
Communication Anxiety	476	2.62	0.61	Medium level
Test Anxiety	476	3.01	0.45	Medium level
Fear of Negative Evaluation	476	2.78	0.64	Medium level

Figure 4.19: FLCAS Sub-Categories response

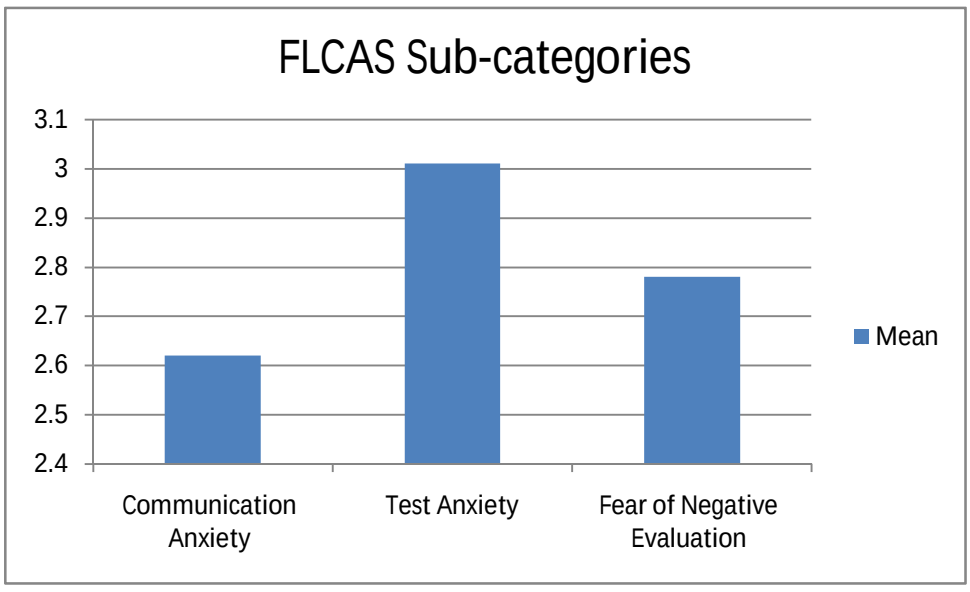


Table 4.23 & Fig 4.19 represent anxiety level in 3 categories such as communication anxiety, 11 items (M=2.62, SD=0.61), test anxiety, 15 items (M=3.01, SD=0.45) and fear of

negative evaluation, 7 items (M=2.78, SD=0.64). All these 3 categories reflect medium level of anxiety of the participants for the current study.

Table 4.24: Mean and Standard Deviation of Communication Anxiety Level

FLCAS Item No.	Communication Anxiety	N	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
1	I never feel confidence of speaking English in class	476	2.61	1.22	Medium level
4	To not understand English teachers saying frightens me	476	2.8	1.48	Medium level
9	To speak without preparation in English class is panic for me	476	2.71	1.39	Medium level
14	I would not be nervous speaking English with native speaker	476	2.91	1.43	Medium level
15	I get upset to not understand my correction in English by teacher	476	2.52	1.28	Medium level
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class	476	2.47	1.34	Medium level
24	I feel very self conscious while speaking English in front of other	476	2.07	1.09	Low level
27	I get nervous when I speak in English class	476	3.04	1.30	Medium level
29	I get nervous when I don't understand every word of teacher	476	2.44	1.32	Low level
30	I become overwhelmed by English rules of language	476	2.46	1.33	Medium level
32	I would feel comfortable among native speakers of English	476	2.86	1.31	Medium level

Figure 4.20: Communication Anxiety Level

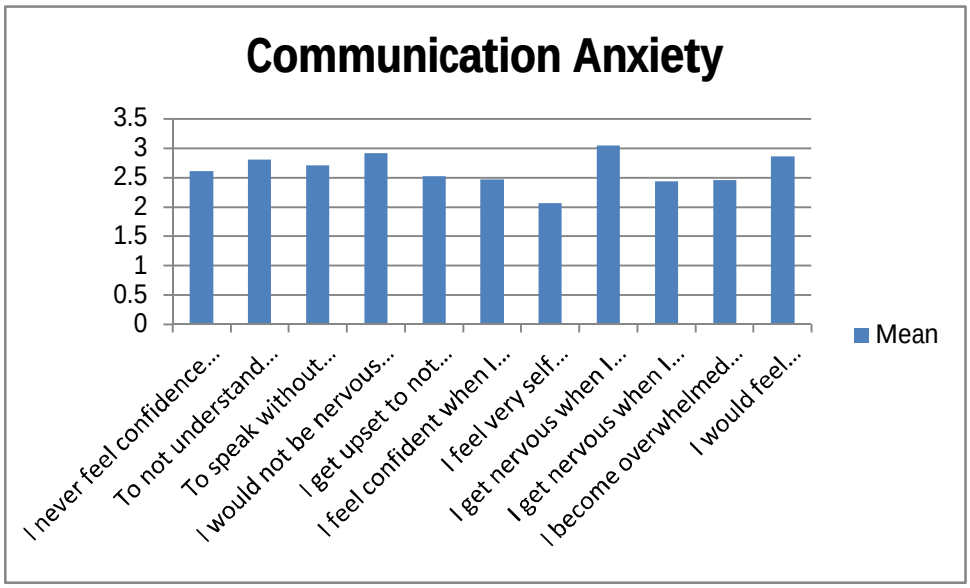


Table 4.24 & Fig 4.20 the descriptive statistics for communication anxiety level is clear evidence that most of the items were responded in medium level of anxiety except, 2 items, item number 24, I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other

students (M=2.07, SD=1.09) and item number 29, I get nervous when I don't understand every word of the teacher says (M=2.44, SD=1.32). All other items were reported medium level use by the respondents, item number 1, I never feel confidence of speaking English in class (M=2.61, SD=1.22), item number 4, To not understand English teachers saying frightens me (M=2.8, SD=1.48), item number 9, To speak without preparation in English class is panic for me (M=2.71, SD=1.39), item number 14, I would not be nervous speaking English with native speaker (M=2.91, SD=1.43), item number 15, I get upset to not understand my correction in English by teacher (M=2.52, SD=1.28), item number 18, I feel confident when I speak in English class (M=2.47, SD=1.34), item number 27, I get nervous when I speak in English class (M=3.04, SD=1.30), item number 30, I become overwhelmed by English rules of language (M=2.46, SD=1.33) , item number 32, I would feel comfortable among native speakers of English (M=2.86, SD=1.31)

Table 4.25: Mean and Standard Deviation of Test Anxiety Level

FLCAS Item No.	Test Anxiety	N	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
3	I never feel confidence of speaking English in class	476	3.05	1.50	Medium level
5	To not understand English teachers saying frightens me	476	2.22	1.36	Low level
6	I think other things during English class	476	3.56	1.38	High level
8	I am usually at ease during English test	476	2.05	1.16	Low level
10	I worry about the failing result in English	476	3.14	1.62	Medium level
11	I don't understand why people get so upset over English class	476	2.31	1.49	Low level
12	In English class I get so nervous I forget things	476	3.31	1.44	Medium level
16	If I am well prepared in English class, I feel anxious about it	476	3.52	1.41	High level
17	I often feel like not going in my English	476	4.04	1.27	High level
20	I can feel my heart pounding while going in English class	476	2.98	1.38	Medium level
21	The more I study English the more I get confuse	476	3.96	1.79	High level
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare for English class	476	2.02	1.18	Low level
25	English class moves so quickly I worry to be left behind	476	2.98	1.45	Medium level
26	I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than any other	476	3.83	2.71	High level
28	When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed	476	2.18	1.25	Low level

Figure 4.21: Test Anxiety

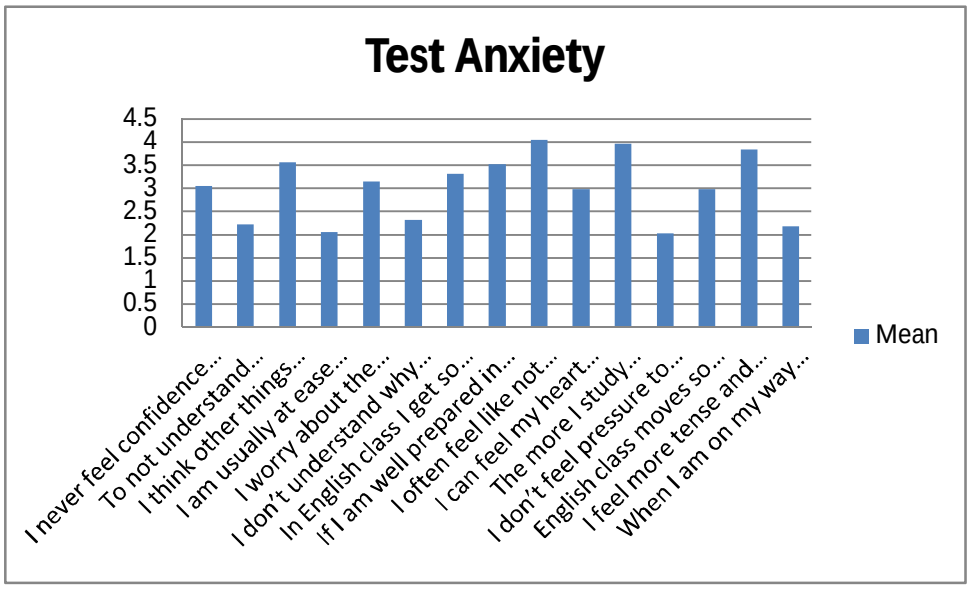


Table 4.25 & Fig 4.21 focus the anxiety level of the participants reported into 3 categories, as high level anxiety, item number 6, I think other things during English class (M=3.56, SD=1.38), item number 16 If I am well prepared in English class, I feel anxious about it, (M=3.52, SD=1.41), item number 17, I often feel like not going in my English (M-4.04, SD=1.25), item number 21, The more I study English the more I get confuse (M=3.96, SD=1.79), item number 26, I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than any other (M=3.83, SD=2.71), as medium level item number3, I never feel confidence of speaking English in class (M=3.05, SD=1.50), item number 10, I worry about the failing result in English (M=3.14, SD=1.62),item number 12, In English class I get so nervous I forget things (M=3.31, SD=1.44) item number 20, I can feel my heart pounding while going in English class (M=2.98, SD=1.38), item number 25, English class moves so quickly I worry to be left behind (M=2.98, SD=1.45) and as low reported anxiety level item number 5, To not understand English teachers saying frightens me (M=2.22, SD=1.36), item number 8, I am usually at ease during English test (M=2.05, 1.16), item number 11, I don't understand why people get so upset over English class (M=2.31, SD=1.49), item number

22, I don’t feel pressure to prepare for English class (M=2.02, SD=1.81) and item number 28, When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed (M=2.18, SD=1.25)

Table 4.26: Mean and Standard Deviation of Fear of Negative Evaluation Level

FLCAS Item No.	Fear of Negative Evaluation	N	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
2	I don’t care about making mistakes in English class	476	2.93	1.39	Medium level
7	I keep thinking that other students are better in English	476	2.68	1.35	Medium level
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class	476	2.99	1.43	Medium level
19	I am afraid that English teacher is ready to correct my mistakes	476	2.66	1.34	Medium level
23	I always feel that other students speak better than me	476	2.62	1.36	Medium level
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at my English speaking	475	3.06	1.45	Medium level
33	I get nervous when the English teacher ask questions not prepared	476	2.51	1.31	Medium level

Figure 4.22: Fear of Negative Evaluation level

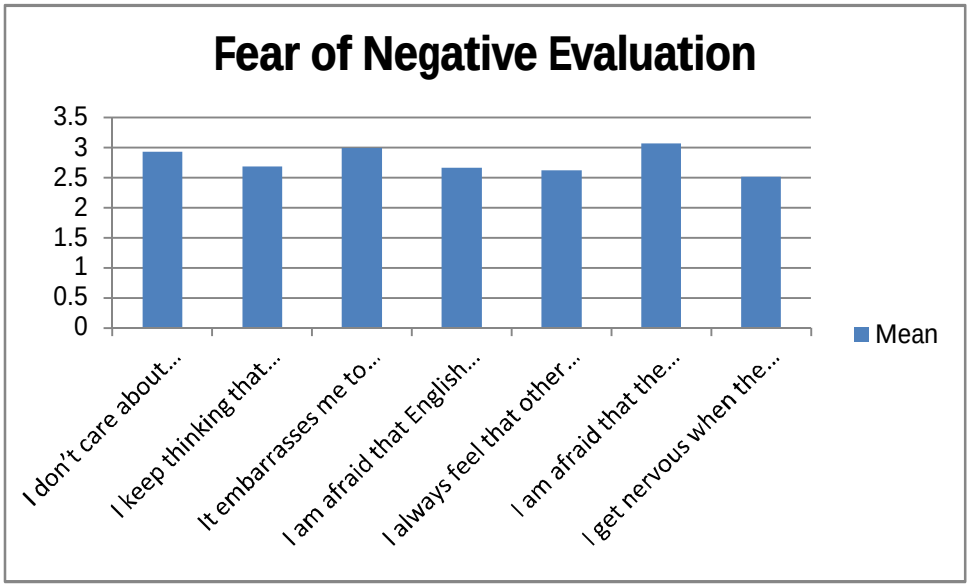


Table 4.26 & Fig 4.22 reveal the anxiety level of the participants as medium level such as item number 2,I don’t care about making mistakes in English class (M=2.93, SD=1.39), item number 7, I keep thinking that other students are better in English (M=2.68, SD=1.35), item number 13, It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class (M=2.99, SD=1.43), item number 19, I am afraid that English teacher is ready to correct my

mistakes (M=2.66, SD=1.34), item number 23, I always feel that other students speak better than me (M=2.62, SD=1.36), item number 31, I am afraid that the other students will laugh at my English speaking (M=3.06, SD=1.45) and item number 33, I get nervous when the English teacher ask questions not prepared (M=2.51, SD=1.31).

Table 4.27: Relationship between overall LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	Communication Anxiety	Test Anxiety	Fair of Negative Evaluation	FLCAS
Memory strategies	0.052	-0.036	0.150**	0.045
Cognitive strategies	-0.139**	-0.122**	-0.055	-0.132**
Compensation strategies	-0.064	-0.037	-0.027	-0.052
Metacognitive strategies	-0.011	-0.138**	0.037	-0.062
Affective strategies	0.148**	0.077	0.152**	0.141**
Social strategies	-0.02	-0.24	0.008	-0.015

Table 4.27 shows the interaction of anxiety on the use of LLS. The sub-division, communication anxiety has the positive correlation with memory strategies use, but it is not statistically significant. While test anxiety has negative correlation with the use memory strategies mean if the test anxiety is at higher level then there would be the low use of memory strategies, the same is not statistically significant. A positive statistically significant correlation was found between fear of negative evaluation and the use of memory strategies. If fear of negative evaluation is at higher level then there would be frequent use of memory strategies. Cognitive strategy is significantly correlated with communication anxiety level. Its value is showing inverse correlation, less the communication anxiety frequent use of cognitive strategies. The same relation of cognitive strategies is with the test anxiety level, fear of negative evaluation level and overall FLCAS. Compensation strategies have negative correlation with the all three categories of anxiety level but not statistically significant. Metacognitive strategies have negative correlation with communication anxiety and test anxiety levels but statistically significant correlation is with test anxiety level,

higher the test anxiety level, less would be the use of metacognitive strategies and vice versa. Positive correlation is with the fear of negative evaluation and metacognitive strategies but not statistically significant. Negative correlation has been found between FLCAS and metacognitive strategies but not statistically significant. Affective strategies have significant positive correlation with communication anxiety level, fear of negative evaluation and overall FLCAS. Affective strategies are also positively correlated with test anxiety level but not statistically significant. Social strategies have negative correlation with communication anxiety level, test anxiety level and overall FLCAS level, but not statistically significant. Social strategies have positive correlation with fear of negative evaluation but not statistically significant.

Table 4.28: Relationship between Public schools LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	Communication Anxiety	Test Anxiety	Fair of Negative Evaluation	FLCAS
Memory strategies	-0.092	-0.118	0.090	-0.073
Cognitive strategies	-0.185**	-0.148*	-0.064	-0.173**
Compensation strategies	-0.061	-0.064	-0.054	-0.075
Metacognitive strategies	-0.135*	-0.294**	-0.082	-0.233**
Affective strategies	-0.066	-0.060	-0.037	-0.070
Social strategies	-0.116	-0.124*	-0.072	-0.134*

Table 4.28 reveals the interaction of anxiety levels on the use of LLS. The sub-division, communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS have the negative correlation with memory strategies but not statistically significant. While fear of negative evaluation has positive correlation with the use memory strategies but not statistically significant. Cognitive strategies have significantly negatively correlated with communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS level. Its value is showing inversely proportional correlation, less

the communication anxiety level, test anxiety level frequent use of cognitive strategies. The same relation of cognitive strategies is with the fear of negative evaluation level but not statistically significant. Compensation strategies have negative correlation with the all three categories of anxiety level but not statistically significant. Metacognitive strategies have significant negative correlation with communication anxiety level, test anxiety level and FLCAS level but non-statistically significant correlation is with the fear of negative evaluation level, higher the test anxiety level, communication level less would be the use of metacognitive strategies and vice versa. Affective strategies have negative correlation with all three anxiety level categories including overall FLCAS but not statistically significant. Social strategies are negatively correlated with all categories of anxiety levels but significant correlation has been found with test anxiety and FLCAS. It reveals that higher the anxiety level lower would be the use of LLS and vice versa.

Table 4.29: Relationship between Private schools LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	Communication Anxiety	Test Anxiety	Fair of Negative Evaluation	FLCAS
Memory strategies	0.109	0.016	0.129	0.084
Cognitive strategies	-0.181**	-0.123	-0.120	-0.161*
Compensation strategies	-0.037	0.018	0.042	0.006
Metacognitive strategies	0.073	0.045	0.137	0.086
Affective strategies	0.308**	0.204**	0.300**	0.297**
Social strategies	0.030	0.073	0.036	0.056

Table 4.29 reveals the interaction of anxiety levels on the use of LLS of students of private schools. The sub-division, communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS have the positive correlation with memory strategies but not statistically significant. Cognitive strategies have significant negative correlation with all three categories of anxiety level but significant correlation is found with communication anxiety and FLCAS level.

Compensation strategies have non-significant correlation with all categories of anxiety level except communication anxiety which has non-significant positive correlation. Metacognitive strategies have positive correlation with the anxiety levels but statistically not significant. Affective strategies have positively significant correlation with all anxiety level. It means higher the anxiety level more frequent would be the use of LLS. Social strategies have non-significant positive correlation with all anxiety level.

Table 4.30: Relationship between Science Students LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	**Communication Anxiety**	**Test Anxiety**	**Fair of Negative Evaluation**	**FLCAS**
Memory strategies	0.088	-0.043	0.108	0.046
Cognitive strategies	-0.173**	-0.171**	-0.101	-0.180**
Compensation strategies	-0.076	0.005	-0.004	-0.029
Metacognitive strategies	-0.040	-0.129*	0.020	-0.072
Affective strategies	0.176	0.105	0.146**	0.163**
Social strategies	-0.065	-0.030	-0.032	-0.049

Table 4.30 shows correlation between LLS use and anxiety level of science students. Memory strategies are positively correlated with communication anxiety and fear of negative evaluation while the same strategies are negative correlated with test anxiety, but both relations are statistically non-significant. Negatively significant correlation is found between cognitive strategies with communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS. But negatively non-correlated with FNE. Compensation strategies have negative correlation except test anxiety but all are statistically non-significant. Metacognitive strategies have significant correlation with test anxiety which means higher the test anxiety lower the use of meta-cognitive strategies and vice versa. Affective strategies have significant correlation

with FNE and FLCAS. Social strategies have negative correlation with all categories of anxiety level but statistically non-significant.

Table 4.31: Relationship between Non science students LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	**Communication Anxiety**	**Test Anxiety**	**Fair of Negative Evaluation**	**FLCAS**
Memory strategies	-0.143	-0.169*	0.131	-0.113
Cognitive strategies	-0.167*	-0.138	-0.055	-0.162*
Compensation strategies	-0.028	-0.093	-0.057	-0.079
Metacognitive strategies	-0.063	-0.303**	-0.048	-0.203*
Affective strategies	-0.013	-0.106	0.056	-0.046
Social strategies	-0.027	-0.178*	-0.052	-0.122

Table 4.31 indicates correlation between LLS use and anxiety level of non-science students. Memory strategies have significant correlation with test anxiety, it means lower the test anxiety higher would be the memory strategy and vice versa. Cognitive strategies have significant negative correlation with communication anxiety and FLCAS which explore higher the anxiety level lower the use of cognitive strategies and vice versa. Compensation strategies have negative correlation with all anxiety classes but statistically non-significant. Metacognitive strategies have negative statistically significant correlation with test anxiety and FLCAS. Affective strategies have negative correlation with all classes of anxiety level but statistically non-significant. Social strategies have statistically significant negative correlation with test anxiety.

Table 4.32: Relationship between Urban schools LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	Communication Anxiety	Test Anxiety	Fair of Negative Evaluation	FLCAS
Memory strategies	0.040	-0.051	0.124*	0.027
Cognitive strategies	-0.137**	-0.102*	-0.070	-0.126*
Compensation strategies	-0.062	-0.009	-0.035	-0.040
Metacognitive strategies	-0.011	-0.129*	0.024	-0.060
Affective strategies	0.146**	0.085	0.141**	0.142**
Social strategies	-0.007	-0.006	0.016	-0.002

Table 4.32 explores the correlation of the LLS use with anxiety level of urban school students. Memory strategies have positive significant correlation with FNE that means higher the FNE level more frequent use of memory strategies. Cognitive strategies have significant negative correlation with communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS. Compensation strategies have negative non-significant correlation with all groups of anxiety levels. Metacognitive strategies have significant negative correlation with FNE and test anxiety. Affective strategies have positive significant correlation with communication anxiety, FNE and FLCAS which shows higher the anxiety level more frequent use of affective strategies. Social strategies have non-significant negative correlation with communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS, positive non-significant correlation with FNE.

Table 4.33: Relationship between Rural Schools LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	Communication Anxiety	Test Anxiety	Fair of Negative Evaluation	FLCAS
Memory strategies	0.068	-0.049	0.193	0.051
Cognitive strategies	-0.178	-0.242*	-0.032	-0.200*
Compensation strategies	-0.054	-0.112	0.033	-0.069
Metacognitive strategies	-0.029	-0.210*	0.055	-0.105
Affective strategies	0.136	0.014	0.149	0.099
Social strategies	-0.044	-0.105	-0.048	-0.084

Table 4.33 indicates the correlation of LLS use with anxiety level use rural school students. Memory strategies have positive correlation with communication anxiety, FNE and FLCAS but negative correlation with test anxiety. All these correlations are statistically non- significant. Cognitive strategies have significant negative correlation with test anxiety and FLCAS. Compensation strategies have negative correlation except FNE but all these correlation are statistically non-significant. Metacognitive strategies have negative significant correlation with test anxiety. Affective strategies have positive non-significant correlation with all categories of anxiety level. Social strategies also have non-significant correlation but negative.

Table 4.34: Relationship between low proficiency schools LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	Communication Anxiety	Test Anxiety	Fair of Negative Evaluation	FLCAS
Memory strategies	-0.278**	-0.178	-0.057	-0.240*
Cognitive strategies	-0.228*	-0.251*	-0.213*	-0.304**
Compensation strategies	-0.068	-0.104	-0.055	-0.103
Metacognitive strategies	-0.127	-0.307**	-0.155	-0.269**
Affective strategies	-0.071	-0.076	-0.077	-0.098
Social strategies	-0.13	-0.31	-0.15	-0.27

Table 4.34 reveals the correlation between LLS use and anxiety level of low proficient students. Memory strategies have negative significant correlation with communication anxiety and FLCAS. Cognitive strategies have negative significant correlation with all groups of anxiety level. Compensation strategies have negative non-significant correlation with all classes of anxiety level. Metacognitive strategies have negative significant correlation with test anxiety and FLCAS. Affective strategies have statistically non-significant correlation with all classes of anxiety level. Social strategies have statistically non-significant correlation with all classes of anxiety level.

Table 4.35: Relationship between high proficiency schools LLS use and FLCAS (N=476)

Language Learning Strategies	Communication Anxiety	Test Anxiety	Fair of Negative Evaluation	FLCAS
Memory strategies	0.084	-0.036	0.158**	0.059
Cognitive strategies	-0.138**	-0.108*	-0.038	-0.119*
Compensation strategies	-0.036	-0.002	0.005	-0.014
Metacognitive strategies	-0.012	-0.123*	0.053	-0.051
Affective strategies	0.177	0.094	0.182**	0.167**
Social strategies	-0.01	-0.12	0.05	-0.05

Table 4.35 shows the correlation between LLS use of high proficiency use and their anxiety level. Memory strategies have positive significant correlation with FNE which means higher the FNE level more frequent use of memory strategies. Cognitive strategies have negative significant correlation with communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS. Compensation strategies have statistically non-significant correlation with communication anxiety, test anxiety and FLCAS, positive non-significant correlated with FNE. Metacognitive strategies have negative significant correlation with test anxiety. Affective strategies have positive correlation with FNE and FLCAS. Social strategies have negative correlation with communication anxiety, test anxiety, FLCAS and positive correlation with FNE, but all these correlation statistically non-significant.

Table 4.36: Difference between LLS use of Public schools students and private schools students

	Public school		Privates schools			
LLS	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**T**	**P**
Memory strategies	33.65	5.31	31.525	5.173	4.37	0.000
Cognitive strategies	51.87	5.17	50.109	6.888	2.59	0.010
Compensation strategies	21.52	7.66	21.891	3.310	-1.10	0.272
Metacognitive strategies	35.51	5.61	34.163	5.138	2.68	0.008
Affective strategies	21.46	3.57	20.074	3.732	4.09	0.000
Social strategies	21.42	4.30	20.27	4.17	2.92	0.004

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.23: Difference between LLS use of Public schools students and private schools students.

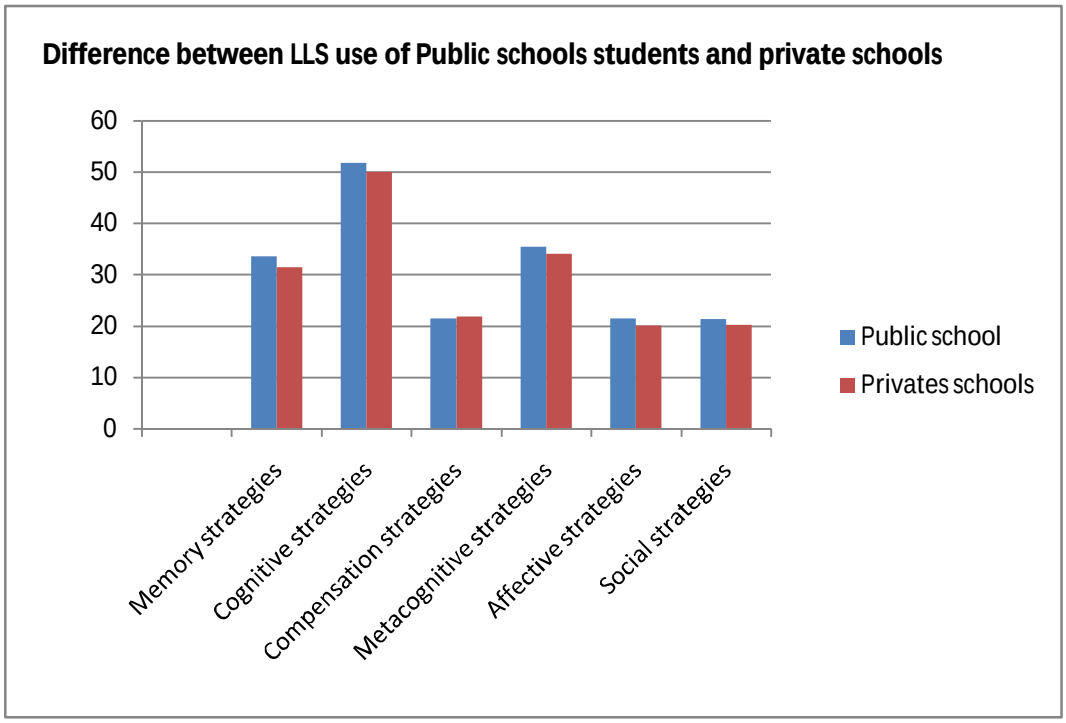


Table 4.36 Fig 4.23 show the difference between LLS use of public school students and private school students. In case of memory strategies, public school students (M=33.65, SD=5.31) higher than private school students (M=31.525, SD=5.173) have most significant at 'P' value 0.000. Cognitive strategies, public schools (M=51.87, SD=5.17) higher than private school students (M=50.109, SD=6.888). The difference is statistically significant at 0.010 'P' value. The use of compensation strategies by public school students (M=21.52, SD=7.66) lower than private school students (M=21.891, SD=3.310), but statistically non-significant at 'P' value 0.272. Metacognitive strategies use of public school students (M=35.51, SD=5.61) higher than private school students (M=34.163, SD=5.138) which is significant at 'P' value 0.008. Affective strategies, public schools (M=21.46, SD=3.57) higher than private schools (M=20.074, SD=3.732) statistically most significant at 'P' value 0.000. Social strategies, public school students (M=21.42, SD=4.30) higher than private school students (M=20.27, SD=4.17) statistically significant at 'P' value 0.004.

Table 4.37: Difference of LLS use between Science and non-science students

	Science students		**Non Science**			
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**T**	**sig**
Memory strategies	32.15	5.44	33.956	4.975	-3.52	0.000
Cognitive strategies	50.50	4.98	52.365	6.842	-2.61	0.009
Compensation strategies	21.75	7.58	21.535	3.848	0.61	0.540
Metacognitive strategies	34.33	5.37	36.145	5.414	-3.46	0.001
Affective strategies	20.46	3.74	21.692	3.489	-3.47	0.001
Social strategies	20.39	4.41	21.99	3.80	-3.90	0.000

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.24: Difference of LLS use between Science and non-science students

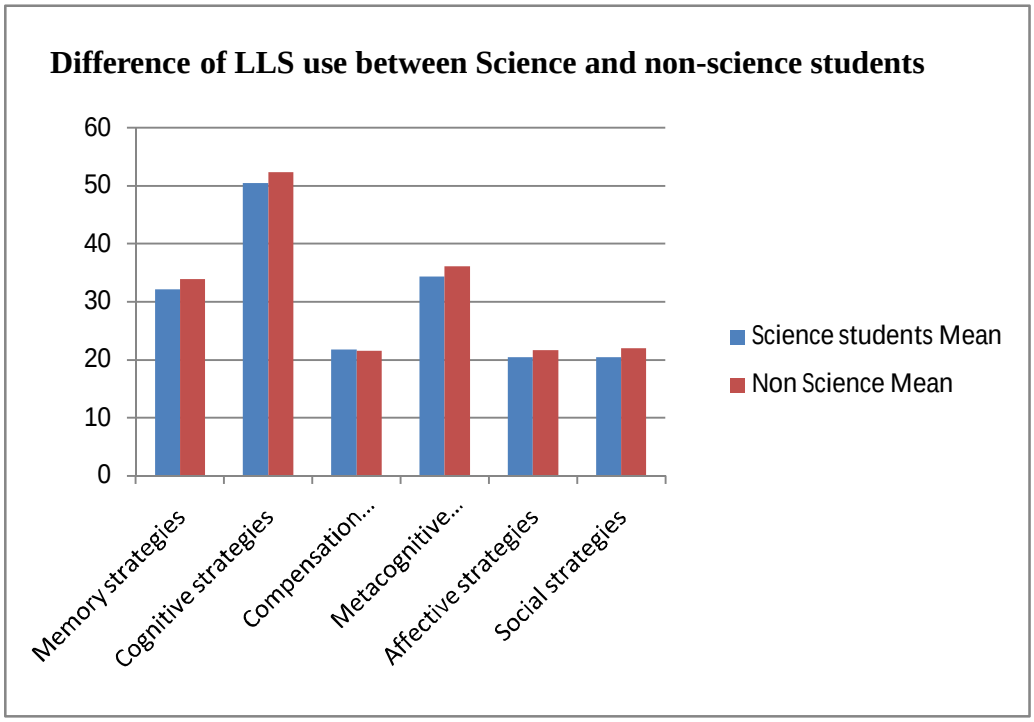


Table 4.37 & Fig 4.24 show difference between LLS use of science students and non-science students. In case of memory strategies of science students (M=32.15, SD=5.44) lower than non-science (M=33.956, SD=4.975) have most significant at 'P' value 0.000. Cognitive strategies, science students (M=50.50, SD=4.98) lower than non-science students (M=52.365, SD=6.842). The difference is statistically significant at 0.009 'P' value. The use of compensation strategies by science students (M=21.75, SD=7.58) higher than non-science students (M=21.35, SD=3.848), but statistically non-significant at 'P' value 0.540. Metacognitive strategies use of science students (M=34.33, SD=5.37) lower than non-science students (M=36.145, SD=5.414) which is significant at 'P' value 0.001. Affective strategies, science students (M=20.46, SD=3.74) lower than non-science students (M=21.692, SD=3.489) statistically significant at 'P' value 0.001. Social strategies, science students (M=20.39, SD=4.41) lower than non-science students (M=21.99, SD=3.80) statistically most significant at 'P' value 0.000.

Table 4.38: Difference of LLS use between Urban and Rural Schools

	Urban		Rural			
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**T**	**P**
Memory strategies	32.12	5.24	35.141	5.117	-5.13	0.000
Cognitive strategies	50.71	5.12	52.707	6.478	-2.41	0.016
Compensation strategies	21.86	7.56	20.980	3.505	2.17	0.031
Metacognitive strategies	34.62	5.53	36.141	4.969	-2.48	0.013
Affective strategies	20.53	3.63	22.152	3.702	-3.93	0.000
Social strategies	20.77	4.28	21.55	4.24	-1.62	0.107

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.25: Difference of LLS use between Urban and Rural Schools

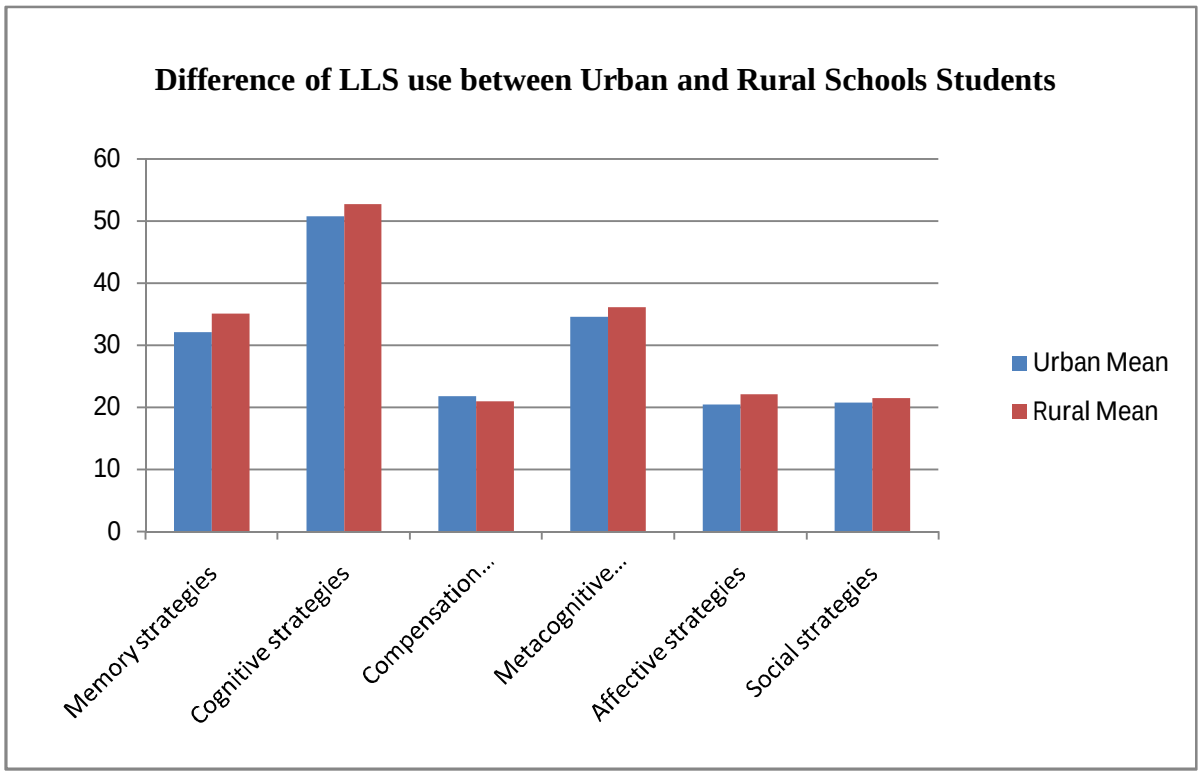


Table 4.38 & Fig 4.25 indicates difference between LLS use of urban school students and rural school students. In case of memory strategies, urban school students (M=32.12, SD=5.24) lower than rural school students (M=35.141, SD=5.117) have most significant at 'P' value 0.000. Cognitive strategies, urban school students (M=50.71, SD=5.12) lower than rural school students (M=52.707, SD=6.478). The difference is

statistically significant at 0.016 ‘P’ value. The use of compensation strategies by urban school students (M=21.86, SD=7.56) higher than rural school students (M=20.98, SD=3.505), but statistically significant at ‘P’ value 0.031. Metacognitive strategies use of urban school students (M=34.62, SD=5.53) lower than rural school students (M=36.141, SD=4.969) which is significant at ‘P’ value 0.013. Affective strategies use by urban school students (M=20.53, SD=3.63) lower than rural school students (M=22.152, SD=3.702) statistically most significant at ‘P’ value 0.000. Social strategies use of urban school students (M=20.77, SD=4.28) lower than rural school students (M=21.55, SD=4.24) statistically non-significant at ‘P’ value 0.107.

Table 4.39: Difference of LLS use between Low proficiency and High proficiency students

	Low proficiency		**High Proficiency**			
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**T**	**P**
Memory strategies	33.78	4.95	34.492	5.224	-0.61	0.546
Cognitive strategies	50.26	5.22	52.492	7.201	-1.38	0.170
Compensation strategies	20.74	6.66	21.015	3.923	-0.29	0.772
Metacognitive strategies	36.59	2.98	35.738	6.283	0.67	0.502
Affective strategies	21.70	3.46	21.508	3.926	0.23	0.822
Social strategies	21.78	3.31	21.92	4.39	-0.15	0.878

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.26: Difference of LLS use between low proficiency and High proficiency students

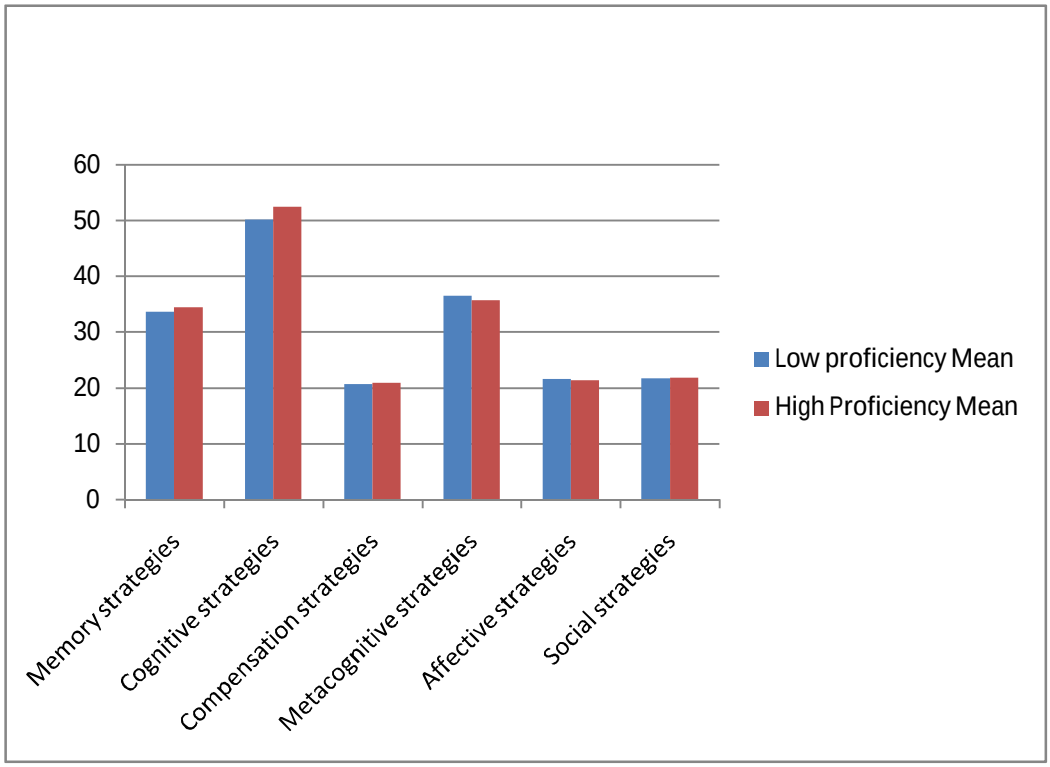


Table 4.39 explores the difference between LLS use high proficient students and low proficient students. In case of memory strategies, low proficient students (M=33.78, SD=4.95) lower than high proficient students (M=34.492, SD=5.224) have non-significant at 'P' value 0.546. Cognitive strategies, low proficient students (M=50.26, SD=5.22) lower than high proficient students (M=52.492, SD=7.201). The difference is statistically non-significant at 0.170 'P' value. The use of compensation strategies by low proficient students (M=20.74, SD=6.66) lower than high proficient students (M=21.015, SD=3.923), but statistically non-significant at 'P' value 0.772. Metacognitive strategies use of low proficient students (M=36.59, SD=2.98) higher than high proficient students (M=35.738, SD=6.283) which is non- significant at 'P' value 0.502. Affective strategies use by low proficient students (M=21.70, SD=3.46) higher than high proficient students (M=21.508, SD=3.926) statistically non-significant at 'P' value 0.822. Social strategies use of low

proficient students (M=21.78, SD=3.31) lower than high proficient students (M=21.92, SD=4.39) statistically non-significant at 'P' value 0.878.

Table 4.40: Interaction of Communication Anxiety with the use of LLS

	Low		Medium		High			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	F	P
Memory strategies	30.91	6.29	33.18	5.19	32.58	5.23	3.63	0.027
Cognitive strategies	52.87	6.93	51.66	6.75	49.87	8.22	4.49	0.012
Compensation strategies	21.98	3.76	21.92	3.42	21.23	3.85	2.06	0.129
Metacognitive strategies	34.91	5.48	35.22	5.35	34.52	5.59	0.85	0.430
Affective strategies	19.04	5.07	20.96	3.71	21.22	3.11	6.45	0.002
Social strategies	20.87	4.04	21.12	4.01	20.66	4.72	0.61	0.544

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.40 shows the mean score of respondents LLS use and three explained anxiety levels as low, medium and high with memory strategies. The mean score at low level with standard deviation (M=30.91, SD=6.29), medium level (M=33.18, SD=5.19) and high level (M=32.58, SD=5.23) 'F' value 3.63 significant at 0.027 'P' value which reveals that variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on memory strategies. The mean score of cognitive strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation (M=52.87, SD=6.93), medium level (M=51.66, SD=6.75) and high level (M=49.87, SD=8.22) 'F' value 4.49 significant at 0.012 'P' value which explores that variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on cognitive strategies. The mean score of Affective strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation (M=19.04, SD=5.07), medium level (M=20.96, SD=3.71) and high level (M=21.22, SD=3.11) 'F' value 6.45 significant at 0.002 'P' value which represents that variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on Affective

strategies. Compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies and social strategies have no significant variance on communication anxiety level.

Table 4.41: Confirmatory Test for Interaction of Communication Anxiety with the use of LLS

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) CA	(J) CA	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Memory Strategies	Low	Medium	-2.27036(*)	.85923	.023
		High level	-1.67028	.89081	.147
	Medium	High level	.60007	.52330	.486
Cognitive Strategies	Low	Medium	1.21030	1.18386	.563
		High level	3.00039(*)	1.22738	.039
	Medium	High level	1.79009(*)	.72101	.036
Affective Strategies	Low	Medium	-1.91308(*)	.59070	.004
		High level	-2.17067(*)	.61241	.001
	Medium	High level	-.25759	.35976	.754

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.41 reflects more memory strategies use of medium communication anxiety level than low communication anxiety level at significant value 0.023.Cognitive strategies use of low communication anxiety level is more than high communication anxiety level at statically significant value 0.039. Cognitive strategies use of medium communication anxiety level is more than high communication anxiety level at statically significant value 0.036. Affective strategies use of medium communication anxiety level is more than low communication anxiety level at statically significant value 0.004. Affective strategies use of low communication strategies level is less than high communication anxiety level at statically significant value 0.001.

Table 4.42: Interaction of Test Anxiety with the use of LLS

	Low		Medium		High		F	P
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**		
Memory strategies	33.19	5.53	32.44	5.21	32.52	5.28	1.11	0.33
Cognitive strategies	52.19	6.98	50.38	7.32	50.52	9.70	3.43	0.03
Compensation strategies	21.83	3.44	21.54	3.68	21.83	4.29	0.38	0.68
Metacognitive strategies	35.76	5.10	34.50	5.35	33.31	7.60	4.38	0.01
Affective strategies	20.74	4.28	20.92	3.14	21.34	4.18	0.39	0.68
Social strategies	21.11	4.27	20.81	4.15	20.69	5.44	0.32	0.73

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.42 shows the mean score of respondents LLS use and three explained anxiety levels as low, medium and high with cognitive strategies. The mean score at low level with standard deviation (M=52.19, SD=6.98), medium level (M=50.38, SD=7.32) and high level (M=50.52, SD=9.70) 'F' value 3.43 significant at 0.03 'P' value which reveals that variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on cognitive strategies. The mean score of metacognitive strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation (M=35.76, SD=5.10), medium level (M=34.50, SD=5.35) and high level (M=33.31, SD=7.60) 'F' value 4.38 significant at 0.01 'P' value which explores that variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on metacognitive strategies. All other categories of strategies have no significance influence of anxiety on their use.

Table 4.43: Confirmatory Test for Interaction of Test Anxiety with the use of LLS

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) TA	(J) TA	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Cognitive strategies	Low	Medium	1.80982(*)	.70150	.027
		High level	1.67447	1.46308	.487
	Medium	High level	-.13535	1.43995	.995
Metacognitive strategies	Low	Medium	1.26166(*)	.51662	.040
		High level	2.45131	1.07748	.060
	Medium	High level	1.18966	1.06045	.501

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.43 displays more cognitive strategies use of low test anxiety level than medium test anxiety level at significant value 0.027. Metacognitive strategies use of low test anxiety level is more than medium test anxiety level at statically significant value 0.040. All other interactions of test anxiety with the use of LLS are not statistically significant.

Table 4.44: Interaction of Fear of Negative Evaluation with the use of LLS

	Low		**Medium**		**High**		**F**	**P**
	Mean	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Mean**	**SD**		
Memory strategies	31.57	6.34	32.51	5.39	33.51	4.82	3.62	0.028
Cognitive strategies	52.06	7.62	51.23	7.11	50.65	7.67	0.91	0.404
Compensation strategies	22.02	3.46	21.55	3.39	21.75	3.96	0.45	0.636
Metacognitive strategies	34.89	5.77	34.72	5.18	35.25	5.70	0.48	0.622
Affective strategies	19.89	4.42	20.76	3.52	21.36	3.59	3.98	0.019
Social strategies	20.80	4.42	21.04	4.04	20.84	4.55	0.15	0.863

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.44 shows the mean score of respondents LLS use and three explained anxiety levels as low, medium and high with memory strategies. The mean score at low level with standard deviation (M=31.57, SD=6.34), medium level (M=32.51, SD=5.39) and high level (M=33.51, SD=4.82) ‘F’ value 3.62 significant at 0.028 ‘P’ value which reveals

that variance is statistically significant and fear of negative evaluation has an effect on memory strategies. The mean score of Affective strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation (M=19.89, SD=4.42), medium level (M=20.76, SD=3.52) and high level (M=21.36, SD=3.59) 'F' value 3.98 significant at 0.019 'P' value which shows that variance is statistically significant and fear of negative evaluation has an effect on Affective strategies. All other classes of LLS has no significance.

Table 4.45: Confirmatory Test for Interaction of Fear of Negative Evaluation with the use of LLS

Multiple Comparisons

Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) FNE	(J) FNE	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Memory Strategies	Low	Medium	-0.94	.74721	.417
		High level	-1.94(*)	.77161	.033
	Medium	High level	-0.99	.53052	.148
Affective Strategies	Low	Medium	-.86631	.51627	.215
		High level	-1.46724(*)	.53314	.017
	Medium	High level	-.60093	.36656	.230

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.45 represents more memory strategies use of high fear of negative evaluation level than low fear of negative evaluation level at significant value 0.033. Affective strategies use of high level of fear of negative evaluation is more than low than fear of negative evaluation level at statically significant value 0.017.

Table 4.46: Ten Most Frequently Used LLS: Means and Standard Deviations

Rank	Item No.	Strategy	Mean	SD	Use
1	43	I write down my feelings in a language, in a language learning diary	3.61	1.28	High use
2	6	I use flash cards	3.46	1.40	Medium use
3	50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	3.18	1.55	Medium use
4	22	I do not translate	3.09	1.35	Medium use
5	44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning	2.87	1.30	Medium use
6	7	I physically act out words	2.85	1.34	Medium use
7	5	I use rhymes	2.76	1.23	Medium use
8	49	I ask questions in English	2.70	1.36	Medium use
9	28	I try to guess what the other will say	2.69	1.183	Medium use
10	34	I plan my schedule so that I will have enough	2.68	1.31	Medium use

Figure 4.27: Ten most frequently used LLS

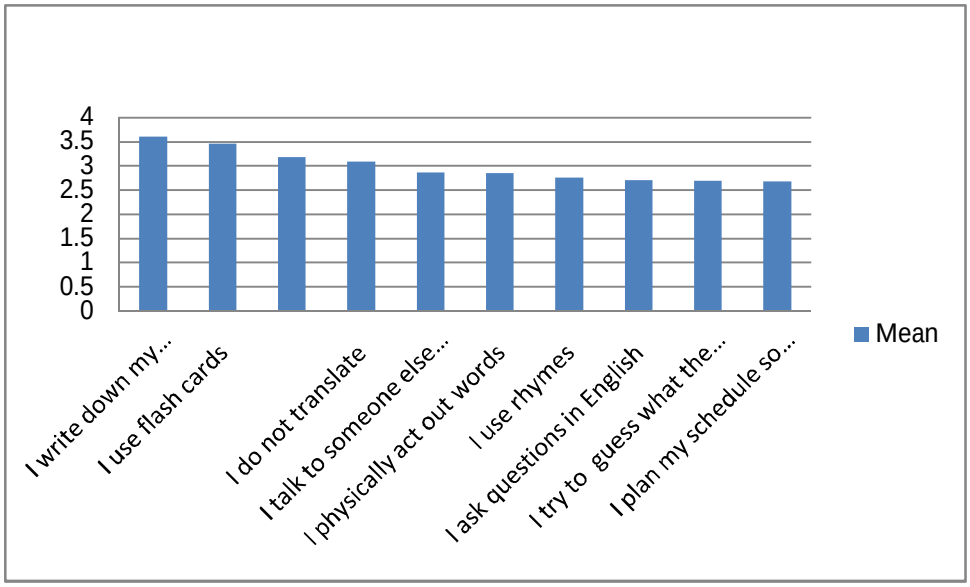


Table 4.27 displays ten most frequently used LLS at rank first is, SILL strategy number 43, I write down my feelings in a language, in a language learning diary (M=3.61, SD=1.28), SILL strategy number 6, I use flashcards, is second most frequently used (M=3.46, SD=1.40) , SILL strategy number 50, I try to learn about the culture of English speakers (M=3.18. SD=1.55), is medium in use at rank 3, SILL strategy number 22, I do not translate (M=3.09, SD=1.35) is medium in use, is at rank4, SILL strategy number 44, I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English (M=2.87, SD=1.30) is at rank

5, SILL strategy number 7 (M=2.85, SD=1.34) is at rank 6, medium in use, at rank 7, SILL strategy number 5, I use rhymes (M=2.76, SD=1.23), SILL strategy number 49, I ask question in English (M=2.70, SD=1.36) is at rank 8, medium in use, SILL strategy number 28, I try to guess what the other will say (M=2.69, SD=1.183) is at rank 9, medium in use, at rank 10, SILL strategy number 34, I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time for English (M=2.68, SD=1.31).

Table 4.47: Ten Least Used LLS: Means and Standard Deviations

Item No.	Strategy	Rank	Mean	SD	Use
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner	1	1.65	.81	Low use
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking	2	1.71	.92	Low use
38	I think about my progress in learning	3	1.71	.92	Low use
31	I notice my mistakes and used information	4	1.75	.90	Low use
37	I have clear goals for improving	5	1.75	.90	Low use
41	I give myself a reward or treat	6	1.84	1.03	Low use
16	I read pleasure	7	1.90	1.03	Low use
9	I remember the location of the words on the page	8	1.92	1.08	Low use
1	I think of relationship	9	1.95	0.95	Low use
40	I encourage myself to speak	10	2.00	1.01	Low use

Figure 4.28: Ten least used LLS

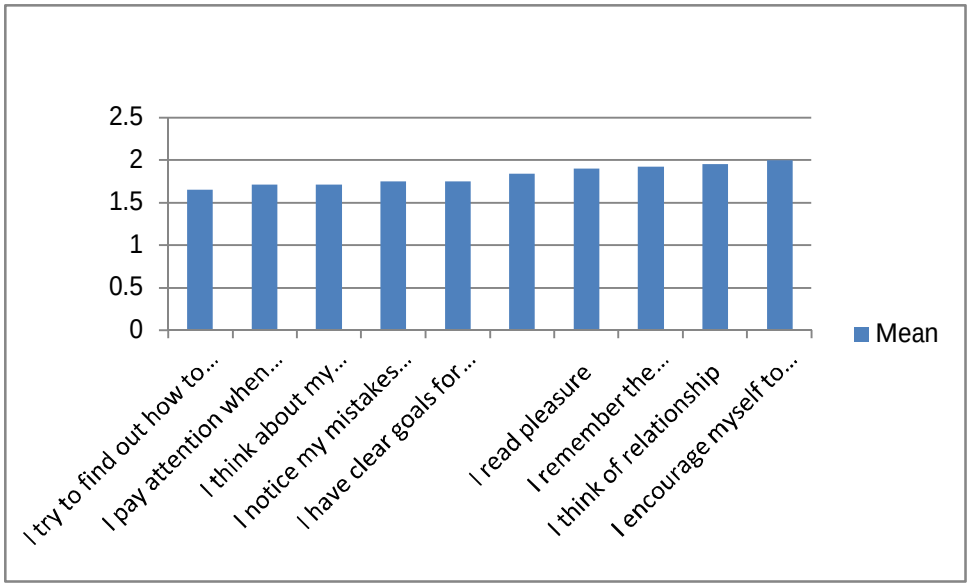


Table 4.47 reflects the less frequently use, at rank 1 SILL strategy number 33, I try to find out how to be a better learner of English (M=1.65, SD=.81), at rank 2, SILL strategy number 32, I pay attention when someone is speaking (M=1.71, SD=.92), at rank 3, SILL

strategy number 38, I think about my progress in learning English (M=1.71, SD.92), at rank 4, SILL strategy number 31, I notice my mistakes and use information in learning English (M1.75, SD.90), at rank 5, SILL strategy number 37, I have clear goals for improving my English (M=1.75, SD.90), at rank 6, SILL strategy number 41, I give myself a reward or treat for learning new English word (M=1.84, SD=1.03), at rank 7, SILL strategy number 16, I read English for my pleasure (M=1.90, SD=1.03), at rank 8, SILL strategy number 9, I remember the location on the word on the page (M=1.92, SD=1.08), at rank 9, SILL strategy number 1, I think of relationship of new English words with the already existing (M=1.95, SD=.95), at rank 10, SILL strategy number 40, I encourage myself to speak English language (M=2.00, SD=1.01)

Table 4.48: Difference of Anxiety Level (FLCAS Items) of Science Students and Non-Science Students

Item No.	FLCAS Statement	Science Students		Non Science Students		sig
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class.	2.79	1.23	2.24	1.13	.000
5	It would not bother me at all to make more English classes.	2.40	1.43	1.84	1.09	.000
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better in English than me.	2.87	1.37	2.30	1.22	.000
8	I am usually at ease during tests in English class.	1.98	1.12	2.22	1.21	.010
14	I would not be nervous while speaking English with native speakers.	2.80	1.37	3.10	1.52	.009
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher correcting.	2.63	1.31	2.29	1.19	.003
17	I often feel like not going to my English class.	4.10	1.23	3.92	1.36	0.17
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class.	2.39	1.24	2.64	1.51	.004
24	I feel very self-conscious while speaking English in front of others.	2.24	1.14	1.75	.94	.005
28	When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed.	2.06	1.17	2.40	1.37	.000
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules have to learn to speak English.	2.48	1.29	2.41	1.41	.040

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.29: Difference of Anxiety Level of Science Students and Non-Science Students

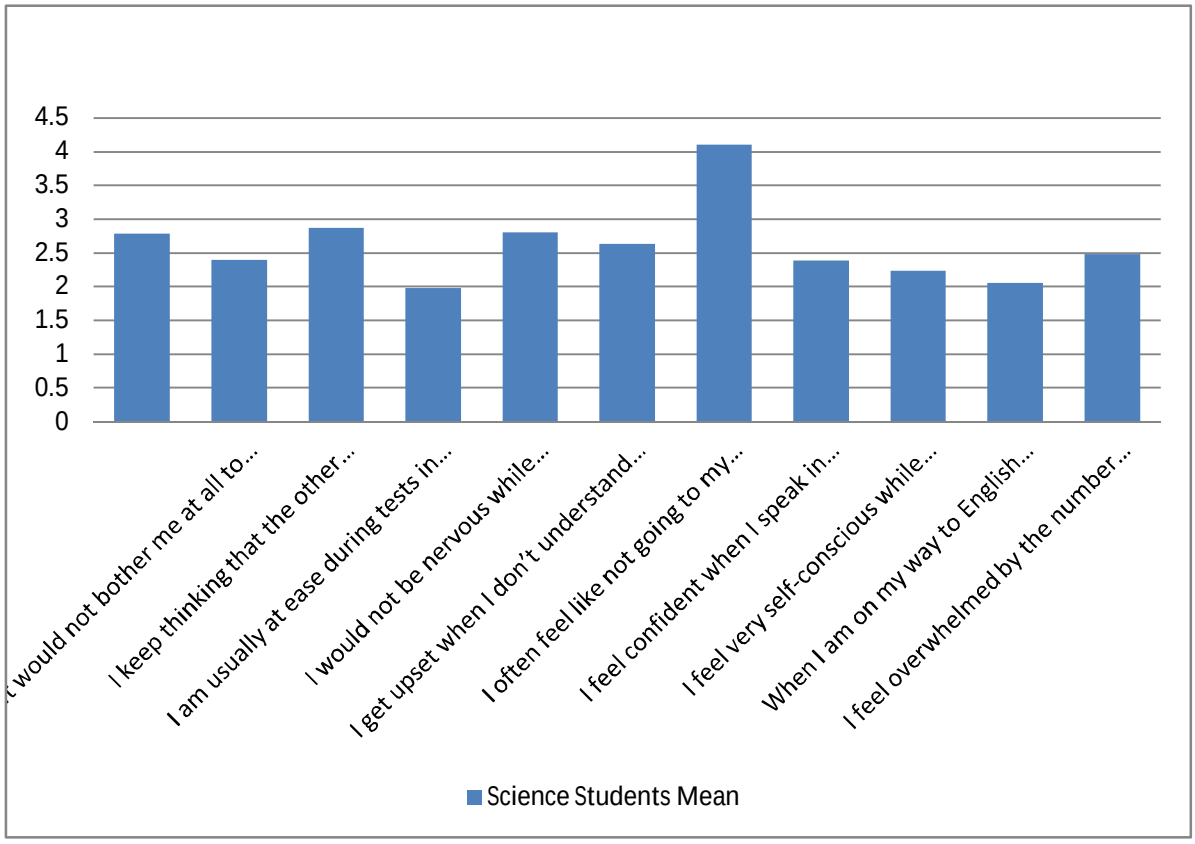


Table 4.48 shows the statistically significant variations of anxiety level between the science students and non-science students as in case of FLCAS item number 1, I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class, science students (M=2.79, SD=1.23) and non-science students (M=2.24, SD=1.13) has most significant value of 0.000. FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, science students (M=2.40, SD=1.43) and non-science students (M=1.84, SD=1.09) is most significant at .000. FLCAS item number 7, I keep thinking that the other students are better in English than me, science students, (M=2.87, SD=1.37) and non-science students, (M=2.30, SD=1.22) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 8, I am usually at ease during tests in English class, science students, (M=1.98, SD=1.12) and non-science students, (M=2.22, SD=1.21) statistically significant at .010. . FLCAS item number 14, I would not be nervous while speaking English with native speakers, (M=2.80, SD=1.37) and non-science students, (M=3.10, SD=1.52) statistically significant at .009. FLCAS item

number 15, I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher correcting., (M=2.63, SD=1.31) and non-science students, (M=2.29, SD=1.19) statistically significant at .003. FLCAS item number 17, I often feel like not going to my English class. (M=4.10, SD=1.23) and non-science students, (M=3.92, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .017. FLCAS item number 18, I feel confident when I speak in English class, science students (M=2.39, SD=1.24) and non-science students, (M=2.64, SD=1.51) statistically significant at .004. FLCAS item number 24, I feel very self-conscious while speaking English in front of others, science students (M=2.24, SD=1.14) and non-science students, (M=1.75, SD=.94) statistically significant at .005. FLCAS item number 28, When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed, science students (M=2.06, SD=1.17) and non-science students, (M=2.40, SD=1.37) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 30, I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules have to learn to speak English, science students (M=2.48, SD=1.29) and non-science students, (M=2.41, SD=1.41) statistically significant at .040.

Table 4.49: Difference of Anxiety Level (FLCAS Items) of Government School Students and Private School Students

Item No.	FLCAS Statement	Govt. Students		Private Students		sig.
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class.	2.36	1.17	2.94	1.22	.035
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	2.99	1.48	2.84	1.25	.000
5	It would not bother me at all to make more English classes.	2.09	1.31	2.40	1.40	.001
10	I worry about the consequences of failing in my English class.	3.26	1.66	2.97	1.56	.033
12	In English class, I can get so nervous I forget thing I know.	3.17	1.47	3.50	1.39	.036
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class.	2.64	1.48	2.24	1.09	.000
26	I feel more tense in my English class than any other.	3.69	3.42	4.00	1.15	.012
28	When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed.	2.27	1.34	2.06	1.09	.000
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English	2.87	1.48	3.30	1.36	.007

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.30: Difference of Anxiety Level (FLCAS Items) of Government School Students and Private School Students

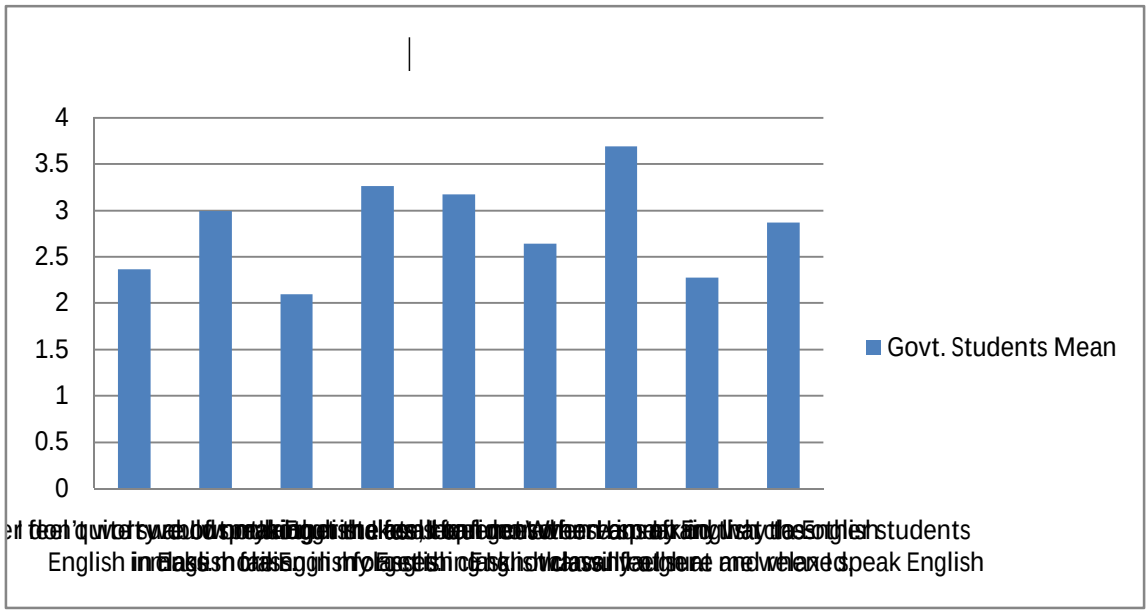


Table 4.49 shows the statistically significant variations of anxiety level between the government school students and private school students as in case of FLCAS item number 1, I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class, government school students (M=2.36, SD=1.17) and private school students (M=2.94, SD=1.22) has most significant value of 0.035. FLCAS item number 2, I don't worry about making mistakes in English class,

government school students (M=2.99, SD=1.48) and private school students (M=2.84, SD=1.25) is most significant at .000. FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, government school students (M=2.09, SD=1.31) and private school students (M=2.40, SD=1.40) is significant at .001. FLCAS item number 10, I worry about the consequences of failing in my English class., government school students, (M=3.26, SD=1.66) and private school students, (M=2.96, SD=1.56) statistically significant at .033. FLCAS item number 12, In English class, I can get so nervous I forget thing I know, government school students, (M=3.17, SD=1.47) and private school students, (M=3.50, SD=1.39) statistically significant at .036. FLCAS item number 18, I feel confident when I speak in English class, government school students (M=2.64, SD=1.48) and private school students, (M=2.24, SD=1.09) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 26, I feel more tense in my English class than any other, government school students (M=3.69, SD=3.42) and private school students, (M=4.00, SD=1.15) statistically significant at .012. FLCAS item number 28, When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed, government school students (M=2.27, SD=1.34) and private school students, (M=2.06, SD=1.09) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 31, I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English, government school students (M=2.87, SD=1.48) and private school students, (M=3.30, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .007.

Table 4.50: Difference of Anxiety Level (FLCAS Items) of Urban School Students and Rural School Students

Item No.	FLCAS Statement	Urban Students		Rural Students		sig.
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
5	It would not bother me at all to make more English classes.	2.25	1.37	2.06	1.28	.010
6	I find myself thinking about other things during English class.	3.47	1.38	3.94	1.31	.005
17	I often feel like not going to my English class.	3.69	1.33	4.33	1.01	.004
25	English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	3.10	1.45	2.47	1.36	.026
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules have to learn to speak English.	2.44	1.30	2.55	1.44	.029
33	I get nervous when teacher asks question which I have not advance prepared.	2.60	1.32	2.18	1.20	.003

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.31: 41 difference of anxiety level (FLCAS items) of urban and rural school students

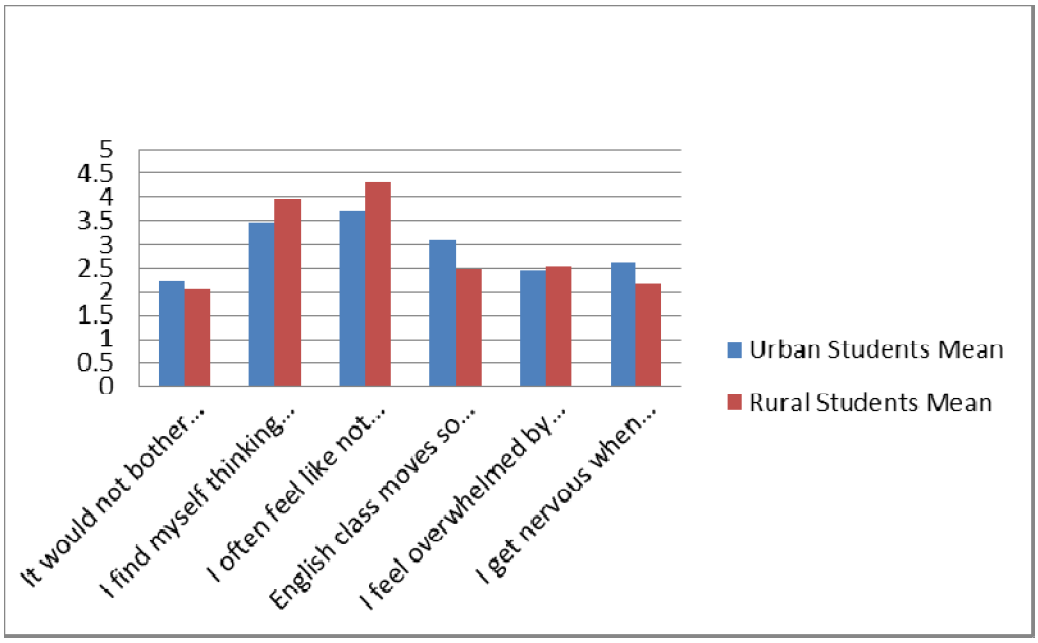


Table 4.50 shows the statistically significant variations of anxiety level between the urban school students and rural school students as in case of FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, urban school students (M=2.25, SD=1.37) and rural school students (M=2.06, SD=1.28) has significant value of .010. FLCAS item number 6, I find myself thinking about other things during English class, urban school students (M=3.47, SD=1.38) and rural school students (M=3.94, SD=1.31) is

significant at .005. FLCAS item number 17, I often feel like not going to my English class, urban school students (M=3.96, SD=1.33) and rural school students (M=4.33, SD=1.01) is significant at .004. FLCAS item number 25, English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind, urban school students, (M=3.10, SD=1.45) and rural school students, (M=2.47, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .026. FLCAS item number 30, I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules have to learn to speak English, urban school students, (M=2.44, SD=1.30) and rural school students, (M=2.55, SD=1.44) statistically significant at .029. FLCAS item number 33, I get nervous when teacher asks question which I have not advance prepared, urban school students (M=2.60, SD=1.32) and rural school students, (M=2.18, SD=1.20) statistically significant at .003

Table 4.51: Difference of Anxiety Level (FLCAS Items) of Low Proficiency Students and High Proficiency Students

Item No.	FLCAS Statement	Low Proficiency Students		High Proficiency Students		sig
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class.	2.32	1.14	2.77	1.20	.000
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	2.95	1.45	2.92	1.35	.014
4	It frightens me when I don't understand the English of teacher.	2.34	1.40	3.20	1.45	.026
5	It would not bother me at all to make more English classes.	2.11	1.27	2.29	1.40	.006
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better in English than me.	2.44	1.30	2.82	1.36	.039
9	I start panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	2.20	1.30	3.01	1.36	.002
11	I don't understand why some people get upset over English classes.	2.47	1.92	2.23	1.18	.044
14	I would not be nervous while speaking English with native speaker.	3.01	1.52	2.84	1.37	.017
17	I often feel like not going to my English class.	3.93	1.39	4.12	1.19	.001
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class.	2.76	1.53	2.31	1.19	.000
21	The more I study for an English test the more confuse I get.	3.84	2.55	4.03	1.15	.003
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.	2.19	1.26	1.93	1.12	.004
28	When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed.	2.32	1.31	2.11	1.20	.019
29	I got nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	2.10	1.31	2.64	1.29	.046
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	2.73	1.15	3.25	1.37	.016
33	I get nervous when teacher asks question which I have not advance prepared.	2.16	1.22	2.72	1.32	.000

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Figure 4.32: Difference of Anxiety Level (FLCAS Items) of Low Proficiency Students and High Proficiency Students

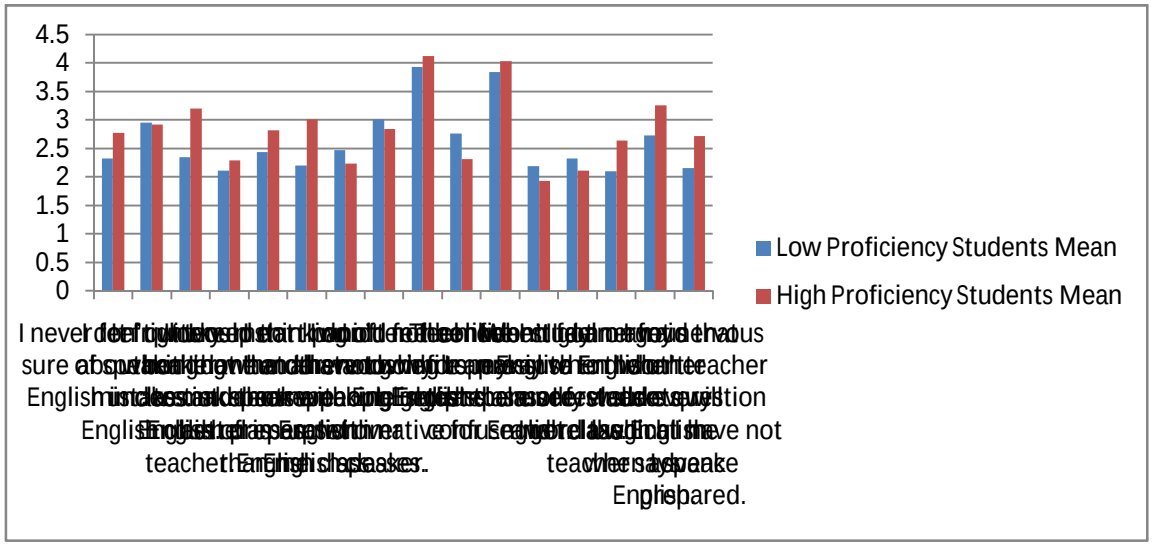


Table 4.51 shows the statistically significant variations of anxiety level between the high proficiency students and low proficiency students as in case of FLCAS item number 1, I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class, high proficiency students (M=2.32, SD=1.14) and low proficiency students (M=2.77, SD=1.25) has most significant value of 0.000. FLCAS item number 2, I don't worry about making mistakes in English class, high proficiency students (M=2.95, SD=1.45) and low proficiency students (M=2.92, SD=1.35) is significant at .014. FLCAS item number 4, It frightens me when I don't understand the English of teacher, high proficiency students (M=2.34, SD=1.40) and low proficiency students, (M=3.20, SD=1.45) statistically significant at .026. FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, high proficiency students (M=2.11, SD=1.27) and low proficiency students (M=2.29, SD=1.40) is significant at .006. FLCAS item number 07, I keep thinking that the other students are better in English than me, high proficiency students, (M=2.44, SD=1.30) and low proficiency students, (M=2.82, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .039. FLCAS item number 9, I start panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class, high proficiency students, (M=2.20, SD=1.30) and low proficiency students, (M=3.01, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .002. . FLCAS item number 11, I don't understand why some people get upset over English classes, high proficiency students (M=2.47, SD=1.92) and low proficiency students, (M=2.23, SD=1.18) statistically significant at .044. FLCAS item number 14, I would not be nervous while speaking English with native speaker, high proficiency students (M=3.01, SD=1.52) and low proficiency students, (M=2.84, SD=1.37) statistically significant at .017. FLCAS item number 17, I often feel like not going to my English class, high proficiency students (M=3.93, SD=1.39) and low proficiency students, (M=4.12, SD=1.19) statistically significant at .001. FLCAS item number 18, I feel confident when I speak in English class, high proficiency students (M=2.76, SD=1.53) and low proficiency students, (M=2.31,

SD=1.19) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 21, The more I study for an English test the more confuse I get, high proficiency students (M=3.84, SD=2.55) and low proficiency students, (M=4.03, SD=1.15) statistically significant at .003. FLCAS item number 22, I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class, high proficiency students (M=2.19, SD=1.26) and low proficiency students, (M=1.93, SD=1.12) statistically significant at .004. FLCAS item number 28, When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed, high proficiency students (M=3.32, SD=1.31) and low proficiency students, (M=2.11, SD=1.20) statistically significant at .019. FLCAS item number 29, I got nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says, high proficiency students (M=2.10, SD=1.31) and low proficiency students, (M=2.64, SD=1.29) statistically significant at .046. FLCAS item number 31, I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English, high proficiency students (M=2.73, SD=1.15) and low proficiency students, (M=3.25, SD=1.37) statistically significant at .016. FLCAS item number 33, I get nervous when teacher asks question which I have not advance prepared, high proficiency students (M=2.16, SD=1.22) and low proficiency students, (M=2.72, SD=1.32) statistically significant at .000.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 The Purpose and the Summary of the Chapter

The purpose of this research study is multifold. The first is to explore what language learning strategies are frequently used by Pakistani high school students; the second, is to find out the anxiety level among different high school students of Pakistan; and the third is to investigate the interaction of anxiety on the use of language learning strategies.

The current study was conducted in order to find out answers to the following research questions:

1. Which language learning strategy or groups of strategies do students report using most frequently?
2. How does anxiety affect the process of language learning and use of language learning strategies?
3. What are the differences of anxiety level and LLS use between private and government schools' language learning students?
4. What are differences of anxiety level and LLS use between rural and urban schools' language learning students?
5. What are the differences of anxiety level and LLS use between science and non-science students learning English Language?
6. What are the differences of anxiety level and LLS use between high proficiency and low proficiency students learning English Language?

5.2 Concise Description of Participants

To evaluate the above mentioned six research questions, a background information questionnaire was attached to Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Leaning (SILL) comprising of 50 items, as well as Horwitz et al (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), consisting of 33 items. All the three questionnaires were administered to 476 high school learners. In the present study, quantitative statistics with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programme Windows (Win8) version 16.0 was used to calculate the variables relating to individual background information plus responses on research questions. Students were grouped as rural school students (100), urban school students (376), government school students (274), private school students (202), science subject students (317), non-science students (159), high English language proficient students (301) & low English language proficient students (175), based on their English result of 9^{th} class Board Examination.

5.3 Brief Description of Research Findings

The descriptive statistics (Means, Standard Deviations etc.) were calculated by the analysing Oxford's SILL (1990) to explore the overall strategy use and strategy use in six sub categories (memory , cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies) of SILL. The reliability with Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 50 items was .883 which was higher than the acceptable scores for respondents in any study. The results of descriptive statistics for overall strategy use displayed that the participants used strategies with low frequency but near to the medium having the mean value of M=2.38, and SD=0.61. The statistics also showed, all six sub scales of strategies in the current study are from low to medium range the most preferred strategy used were affective strategies (M=2.52, SD=0.71) and social strategies (M=2.51, SD=0.88). The lowest strategies use categories are compensation strategies (M=2.40, SD=0.45), memory strategies (M=2.36,

SD=0.61), cognitive strategies (M=2.35, SD=0.45) and metacognitive strategies (M=2.12, SD=0.73). High range of strategy use was not found in any of the six sub categories of the LLS.

Pearson's correlation reflected significant correlation of the strategy use among eight different groups of students (the learners were grouped as rural school students (100), urban school students (376), government school students (274), private school students (202), science subject students (317), non-science students (159), high English language proficient students (301) & low English language proficient students (175), based on their English result of 9th class Board Examination) which are as under:

The relationships between private and public school students indicated statistically significant correlation in all the six sub groups of strategies; for example, in case of memory strategies, public school students have a higher score (M=33.65, SD=5.31) than private school students (M=31.525, SD=5.173) with significance value of 0.000. the mean values for Cognitive strategies is M=51.87, SD=5.17) for public school learners which is higher than private school students with mean values of M=50.109, SD=6.89. The difference is statistically significant at 0.010 'P' value. The use of compensation strategies by public school students (M=21.52, SD=7.66) is lower than private school students (M=21.891, SD=3.310), but it is statistically not significant as the 'P' value is 0.272. Metacognitive strategies use of public school students (M=35.51, SD=5.61) is higher than private school students (M=34.163, SD=5.138) which is significant at 'P' value 0.008. For affective strategies, public schools is higher (M=21.46, SD=3.57) than private schools (M=20.074, SD=3.732) which is statistically the most significant at 'P' value 0.000. And for Social strategies, public school students' use is higher (M=21.42, SD=4.30) than private school students (M=20.27, SD=4.17), i.e. statistically significant at 'P' value 0.004.

The difference between LLS use of science students and non-science students displayed significant correlation in all groups of strategies, as in case of memory strategies, science students use of LLS is lower (M=32.15, SD=5.44) than non-science students (M=33.956, SD=4.975) have most significant at 'P' value 0.000. Cognitive strategies, science students (M=50.50, SD=4.98) lower than non-science students (M=52.365, SD=6.842). The difference is statistically significant at 0.009 'P' value. The use of compensation strategies by science students (M=21.75, SD=7.58) higher than non-science students (M=21.35, SD=3.848), but statistically non significant at 'P' value 0.540. Metacognitive strategies use of science students (M=34.33, SD=5.37) lower than non-science students (M=36.145, SD=5.414) which is significant at 'P' value 0.001. Affective strategies, science students (M=20.46, SD=3.74) lower than non-science students (M=21.692, SD=3.489) statistically significant at 'P' value 0.001. Social strategies, science students (M=20.39, SD=4.41) lower than non-science students (M=21.99, SD=3.80) statistically most significant at 'P' value 0.000.

LLS use of urban school students and rural school students indicated statistically significant variations in all six groups of strategies which are as; the mean value of Memory Strategies, for urban school students (M=32.12, SD=5.24) is lower than rural school students (M=35.141, SD=5.117) which is significant at 'P' value 0.000. For Cognitive Strategies, the mean score of urban school students (M=50.71, SD=5.12) is lower than rural school students (M=52.707, SD=6.478). The difference is statistically significant at 0.016 'P' value. The use of Compensation Strategies by urban school students (M=21.86, SD=7.56) is higher than rural school students (M=20.98, SD=3.505), which is statistically significant at 'P' value 0.031. Metacognitive Strategies' use of urban school students (M=34.62, SD=5.53) is lower than rural school students (M=36.141, SD=4.969) which is significant at 'P' value 0.013. Affective strategies' use by urban school students (M=20.53,

SD=3.63) is also lower than rural school students (M=22.152, SD=3.702) with statistically most significant value ‘P’ of 0.000. Social strategies’ use of urban school students (M=20.77, SD=4.28) is lower than rural school students (M=21.55, SD=4.24) which is statistically not significant at ‘P’ value 0.107.

The variation between LLS use of high proficient students and low proficient students revealed significant correlation among the six sub groups of strategies. For memory strategies, low proficiency students have lower mean scores (M=33.78, SD=4.95) than high proficiency students (M=34.492, SD=5.224) but it is not significant at ‘P’ value 0.546. For Cognitive Strategies, low proficiency students have lower mean scores (M=50.26, SD=5.22) than high proficient students (M=52.492, SD=7.201). The difference is statistically non-significant at 0.170 ‘P’ value. The use of compensation strategies by low proficient students (M=20.74, SD=6.66) is lower than high proficient students (M=21.015, SD=3.923), but statistically non-significant at ‘P’ value 0.772. Metacognitive strategies use of low proficient students (M=36.59, SD=2.98) is higher than high proficient students (M=35.738, SD=6.283) which is non- significant at ‘P’ value 0.502. Affective strategies use by low proficient students (M=21.70, SD=3.46) is higher than high proficient students (M=21.508, SD=3.926), statistically non-significant at ‘P’ value 0.822. Social strategies use of low proficient students (M=21.78, SD=3.31) is lower than high proficient students (M=21.92, SD=4.39) which is statistically non-significant at ‘P’ value 0.878.

The research also investigated statistically significant differences in case of the interaction of three different classes (communication anxiety, test anxiety & fear of negative evaluation) of anxiety level on the use of Language Learning Strategies which are mentioned as under:

The interaction of communication anxiety mean score of respondents on LLS use and the three explained anxiety levels as low, medium and high with memory strategies.

The mean score at low level with standard deviation is (M=30.91, SD=6.29), medium level (M=33.18, SD=5.19) and high level (M=32.58, SD=5.23) and the 'F' value is 3.63 significant at 0.027 'P' value which reveals that the variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on memory strategies. The mean score for cognitive strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation is (M=52.87, SD=6.93), medium level (M=51.66, SD=6.75) and high level (M=49.87, SD=8.22) with 'F' value 4.49 and significant at 0.012 'P' value which means that the variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on cognitive strategies. The mean score of Affective strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation is (M=19.04, SD=5.07), medium level (M=20.96, SD=3.71) and high level (M=21.22, SD=3.11) with 'F' value 6.45 which is significant at 0.002 'P' value which represents that variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on Affective strategies. Compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies and social strategies have no significant variance on communication anxiety level.

The confirmatory test for the interaction of communication anxiety with significant variation reflected more use of memory strategies at medium communication anxiety level than low communication anxiety level at significant value 0.023.Cognitive strategies use of low communication anxiety level is more than high communication anxiety level at statistically significant value 0.039. Cognitive strategies use at medium communication anxiety level is more than high communication anxiety level at statistically significant value 0.036. Affective strategies use for medium communication anxiety level is lower for communication anxiety level at statistically significant value 0.004. Affective strategies use for low communication strategies level is lesser than high communication anxiety level at statistically significant value 0.001.

The statistics for the interaction of test anxiety showed the mean score of respondents on LLS use and the three explained anxiety levels as low, medium and high with cognitive strategies. The mean score at low level with standard deviation is (M=52.19, SD=6.98), medium level (M=50.38, SD=7.32) and high level (M=50.52, SD=9.70) with 'F' value 3.43 which is significant at 0.03 'P' value which reveals that the variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on cognitive strategies. The mean score for metacognitive strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation is (M=35.76, SD=5.10), medium level (M=34.50, SD=5.35) and high level (M=33.31, SD=7.60) with 'F' value 4.38 significant at 0.01 'P' value which explores that variance is statistically significant and communication anxiety has an effect on metacognitive strategies. All other categories of strategies have no significance influence of anxiety on their use.

The confirmatory test for the interaction of test anxiety on the use of LLS displayed more cognitive strategies use for low test anxiety level than medium test anxiety level at significant value 0.027. Metacognitive strategies use of low test anxiety level is more than medium test anxiety level at statically significant value 0.040. All other interactions of test anxiety with the use of LLS are not statistically significant.

The interaction of fear of negative evaluation mean score of respondents on LLS use and three explained anxiety levels as low, medium and high with memory strategies, the mean score at low level with standard deviation (M=31.57, SD=6.34), medium level (M=32.51, SD=5.39) and high level (M=33.51, SD=4.82) with 'F' value 3.62 significant at 0.028 'P' value which reveals that variance is statistically significant and fear of negative evaluation has an effect on memory strategies. The mean score of Affective strategies use at low anxiety level with standard deviation (M=19.89, SD=4.42), medium level (M=20.76, SD=3.52) and high level (M=21.36, SD=3.59) and 'F' value 3.98 is significant at 0.019 'P'

value which shows that variance is statistically significant and fear of negative evaluation has an effect on Affective strategies. All other classes of LLS have no significant variation.

The confirmatory test for the interaction of fear of negative evaluation on the use of LLS indicated, more memory strategies use of high fear of negative evaluation level than low fear of negative evaluation level at significant value 0.033. Affective strategies use of high level of fear of negative evaluation is more than low than fear of negative evaluation level at statically significant value 0.017.

T-tests were used to find out the differences in the anxiety level of different groups (rural, urban, government, private, science, non-science, high English proficient & low English proficient) of Pakistani high school students.

Significant difference of anxiety level (FLCAS Items) of science students and non-science students reflected as; The science students and non-science students as in case of FLCAS item number 1, I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class, science students (M=2.79, SD=1.23) and non-science students (M=2.24, SD=1.13) has most significant value of 0.000. FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, science students (M=2.40, SD=1.43) and non-science students (M=1.84, SD=1.09) is most significant at .000. FLCAS item number 7, I keep thinking that the other students are better in English than me, science students, (M=2.87, SD=1.37) and non-science students, (M=2.30, SD=1.22) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 8, I am usually at ease during tests in English class, science students, (M=1.98, SD=1.12) and non-science students, (M=2.22, SD=1.21) statistically significant at .010. . FLCAS item number 14, I would not be nervous while speaking English with native speakers, (M=2.80, SD=1.37) and non-science students, (M=3.10, SD=1.52) statistically significant at .009. FLCAS item number 15, I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher correcting, (M=2.63, SD=1.31) and non-science students, (M=2.29, SD=1.19) statistically significant at

.003. FLCAS item number 17, I often feel like not going to my English class. (M=4.10, SD=1.23) and non-science students, (M=3.92, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .017. FLCAS item number 18, I feel confident when I speak in English class, science students (M=2.39, SD=1.24) and non-science students, (M=2.64, SD=1.51) statistically significant at .004. FLCAS item number 24, I feel very self-conscious while speaking English in front of others, science students (M=2.24, SD=1.14) and non-science students, (M=1.75, SD=.94) statistically significant at .005. FLCAS item number 28, When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed, science students (M=2.06, SD=1.17) and non-science students, (M=2.40, SD=1.37) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 30, I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules have to learn to speak English, science students (M=2.48, SD=1.29) and non-science students, (M=2.41, SD=1.41) statistically significant at .040.

The difference of anxiety level (FLCAS Items) of Government school students and private school students was as; The statistically significant variation as in case of FLCAS item number 1, I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class, government school students (M=2.36, SD=1.17) and private school students (M=2.94, SD=1.22) has most significant value of 0.035. FLCAS item number 2, I don't worry about making mistakes in English class, government school students (M=2.99, SD=1.48) and private school students (M=2.84, SD=1.25) is most significant at .000. FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, government school students (M=2.09, SD=1.31) and private school students (M=2.40, SD=1.40) is significant at .001. FLCAS item number 10, I worry about the consequences of failing in my English class., government school students, (M=3.26, SD=1.66) and private school students, (M=2.96, SD=1.56) statistically significant at .033. FLCAS item number 12, In English class, I can get so nervous I forget thing I know, government school students, (M=3.17, SD=1.47) and private school students,

(M=3.50, SD=1.39) statistically significant at .036. FLCAS item number 18, I feel confident when I speak in English class, government school students (M=2.64, SD=1.48) and private school students, (M=2.24, SD=1.09) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 26, I feel more tense in my English class than any other, government school students (M=3.69, SD=3.42) and private school students, (M=4.00, SD=1.15) statistically significant at .012. FLCAS item number 28, When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed, government school students (M=2.27, SD=1.34) and private school students, (M=2.06, SD=1.09) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 31, I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English, government school students (M=2.87, SD=1.48) and private school students, (M=3.30, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .007.

The difference of anxiety level (FLCAS Items) of urban school students and rural school students; showed the statistically significant variations as in case of FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, urban school students (M=2.25, SD=1.37) and rural school students (M=2.06, SD=1.28) has significant value of .010. FLCAS item number 6, I find myself thinking about other things during English class, urban school students (M=3.47, SD=1.38) and rural school students (M=3.94, SD=1.31) is significant at .005. FLCAS item number 17, I often feel like not going to my English class, urban school students (M=3.96, SD=1.33) and rural school students (M=4.33, SD=1.01) is significant at .004. FLCAS item number 25, English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind, urban school students, (M=3.10, SD=1.45) and rural school students, (M=2.47, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .026. FLCAS item number 30, I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules have to learn to speak English, urban school students, (M=2.44, SD=1.30) and rural school students, (M=2.55, SD=1.44) statistically significant at .029. FLCAS item number 33, I get nervous when teacher asks question which I have not

advance prepared, urban school students (M=2.60, SD=1.32) and rural school students, (M=2.18, SD=1.20) statistically significant at .003.

The difference of anxiety Level (FLCAS Items) of low proficiency students and high proficiency students; Indicated the statistically significant variations of anxiety level as in case of FLCAS item number 1, I never feel quite sure of speaking English in class, high proficiency students (M=2.32, SD=1.14) and low proficiency students (M=2.77, SD=1.25) has most significant value of 0.000. FLCAS item number 2, I don't worry about making mistakes in English class, high proficiency students (M=2.95, SD=1.45) and low proficiency students (M=2.92, SD=1.35) is significant at .014. FLCAS item number 4, It frightens me when I don't understand the English of teacher, high proficiency students (M=2.34, SD=1.40) and low proficiency students, (M=3.20, SD=1.45) statistically significant at .026. FLCAS item number 5, It would not bother me at all to make more English classes, high proficiency students (M=2.11, SD=1.27) and low proficiency students (M=2.29, SD=1.40) is significant at .006. FLCAS item number 07, I keep thinking that the other students are better in English than me, high proficiency students, (M=2.44, SD=1.30) and low proficiency students, (M=2.82, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .039. FLCAS item number 9, I start panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class, high proficiency students, (M=2.20, SD=1.30) and low proficiency students, (M=3.01, SD=1.36) statistically significant at .002. . FLCAS item number 11, I don't understand why some people get upset over English classes, high proficiency students (M=2.47, SD=1.92) and low proficiency students, (M=2.23, SD=1.18) statistically significant at .044. FLCAS item number 14, I would not be nervous while speaking English with native speaker, high proficiency students (M=3.01, SD=1.52) and low proficiency students, (M=2.84, SD=1.37) statistically significant at .017. FLCAS item number 17, I often feel like not going to my English class, high proficiency students (M=3.93, SD=1.39) and low proficiency students,

(M=4.12, SD=1.19) statistically significant at .001. FLCAS item number 18, I feel confident when I speak in English class, high proficiency students (M=2.76, SD=1.53) and low proficiency students, (M=2.31, SD=1.19) statistically significant at .000. FLCAS item number 21, The more I study for an English test the more confuse I get, high proficiency students (M=3.84, SD=2.55) and low proficiency students, (M=4.03, SD=1.15) statistically significant at .003. FLCAS item number 22, I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class, high proficiency students (M=2.19, SD=1.26) and low proficiency students, (M=1.93, SD=1.12) statistically significant at .004. FLCAS item number 28, When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed, high proficiency students (M=3.32, SD=1.31) and low proficiency students, (M=2.11, SD=1.20) statistically significant at .019. FLCAS item number 29, I got nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says, high proficiency students (M=2.10, SD=1.31) and low proficiency students, (M=2.64, SD=1.29) statistically significant at .046. FLCAS item number 31, I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English, high proficiency students (M=2.73, SD=1.15) and low proficiency students, (M=3.25, SD=1.37) statistically significant at .016. FLCAS item number 33, I get nervous when teacher asks question which I have not advance prepared, high proficiency students (M=2.16, SD=1.22) and low proficiency students, (M=2.72, SD=1.32) statistically significant at .000.

5.4 Discussion

Research Question 1: Which language learning strategy or groups of strategies do students report using most frequently?

The current research found that the overall strategies used by Pakistani high school students is low but near to the medium use. Therefore, it does not support some of the earlier studies conducted; like high frequency of strategy use was reported in case of ESL learners (Politzer, 1983; Nyikos & Oxford 1993; Green & Oxford, 1993). It is important to

mention that these mentioned studies were dependable on findings of the earlier research conducted among EFL Asian students (Wharton, 2000; Bramner, 1999; Ok, 2003; Park, 2005). In the case of current research following reason may be that Pakistani students have a limited exposure to English language so they use different strategies from those of ESL learners. ESL learners have a propensity to be more motivated to learn English for the purpose of their endurance and to expedite their approach to authentic learning material (Rao, 2006). On the other hand Pakistani high school students have very few possibilities to work together with the native speakers of English and their culture. In such types of situations Pakistani students may not use LLS with the same frequency as ESL learners utilize in the process of language learning.

According to the analysis of six categories, it is evident from the current research that Pakistani high school students use LLS with the mean statistics range of 2.52 to 2.12. Affective strategies were most frequently used followed by the social strategies, then compensation strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. High strategies' use was not found in case of Pakistani high school students learning English language. The present study does not support some earlier studies in this regard; like that of EFL Korean learners (Lee, 1994; Kim, 1995; Ok, 2003) and Asian learners (Grainger, 1997) who used compensation strategies more.

The possible reason for the use of affective strategies by Pakistani learners is to overcome some language learning anxiety etc. Pakistani high school students are having teacher-orient learning situation and feel anxiety. They use a variety of affective strategies to encourage themselves. It can be concluded that Pakistani high school students use affective and social strategies most frequently to control their affective states and to enhance their chances of social interaction with the English, as the trend in Pakistan is changing towards English language.

Research question 2: How does anxiety affect the process of language learning and use of language learning strategies?

The interaction of anxiety of the LLS use of the high school students of Pakistan is described under three classes of the foreign language classroom anxiety as; Communication anxiety, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation as described by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986)

It is broadly assumed that learning a foreign language can be a nerve-racking element for some learners (Hewitt & Stefenson, 2011). Many researchers; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Phillips, 1992; Aida, 1994; MacIntyre, 1999, 2002; Horwitz, 2000, 2001 Gardner, 2005; Tóth, 2007. Have examined a deleterious association between FL anxiety and the level of achievement. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1987) identified three types of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety.. A positive association between language anxiety and language achievement was explored by Liu(2006); Oxford (1999), most of the studies are evident that language anxiety is negatively related to language achievement (e.g., MacIntyre, 1999; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, Noels, Clement, 1997). lower success with higher anxiety is endorsed to deleterious effects of anxiety on language learning (Tóth, 2007; MacIntyre, 1999, 2002; Horwitz, 2000, 2001).

a. Communication Anxiety

Students having medium level of communication anxiety use more of memory strategies than low communication anxiety level students. Memory strategies assist language learners to hoard new information in memory and recover, based on Oxford and Crookall(1989). In case of cognitive strategies, low communication anxiety level students use more cognitive strategies than high communication anxiety level students. While medium level of anxiety is also more frequent in the use of cognitive strategies than high

communication anxiety level students. It support Oxford and Crookall(1989) as cognitive strategies analyze and generate structure for in put and out put. In case of affective strategies, medium anxiety level students revealed more use than low communication level students. High communication anxiety level students also use more affective strategies than low communication anxiety. These findings support the studies of MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Phillips, 1992; Aida, 1994; MacIntyre, 1999, 2002; Horwitz, 2000, 2001 Gardner, 2005; Tóth, 2007. Which show the negative correlation between the use of LLS and anxiety level

b. Test Anxiety

The interaction of test anxiety on the LLS use reflects that Low test anxiety level students use more cognitive strategies than medium test anxiety level students. The same with the case of meta-cognitive strategies use. This indicated that students with low test anxiety level manage their learning process very well which support the findings of Noormohamadi.R.(2009). As meta cognitive strategies are associated with centering, evaluating, arranging and planning the learning as stated Oxford (1990).

c. Fear of Negative Evaluation

The interaction of fear of negative evaluation revealed that the students with high anxiety level of fear of negative evaluation use memory strategies than those who have low level of fear of negative evaluation. The same the case of affective strategies use i.e. high anxiety level students use more affective strategies than students having low fear of negative evaluation. As in memory strategies learner creates mental linkage, review well , applies images, sounds and action. The use of affective strategies lower anxiety level and learner encourages himself, based on Oxford (1990).

Research Question 3: What are the differences of anxiety level and LLS use between private and government schools' language learning students?

Statistically significant variations were reported in anxiety level of the government and private school students in the FLCAS item number 1, I never feel of quite sure of speaking English in class (CA), government school students are less anxious than private school students. On FLCAS item number 2, (I don't worry about making mistakes (FNE)), government school students are much anxious than private school students. Again on FLCAS item number 5, (It would not bother me at all to make more English class (TA)), government school students are less anxious than private school students. For FLCAS item number 10, (I worry about the consequence of failing my English class (TA)), government school students are more anxious than private school students. For FLCAS item number 12 (In English class I get so nervous I forget things I know (TA)), government school students are less anxious than private school students. For FLCAS item number 18, (I feel confident when I speak in English class (CA)), governmental school students are more confident in this than private school students. For FLCAS item number 26, (I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than any other class (TA)), government school students are more anxious than private school students. FLCAS item number 28, (When I am on my way to English class, I feel sure and relaxed (TA)), government school students reported more confidence than the private school students, FLCAS item number 31, I am afraid that other students will laugh at me when I speak English (FNE), in this case private school students are more tense than government school students.

In case of the difference between LLS use of the government high school students and private high school students; Government school students used more memory strategies, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social

strategies than private school students. Compensation strategies were reported more frequently used by private school students than government school students.

Research Question 4: What are differences of anxiety level and LLS use between rural and urban schools' language learning students?

In case of the variation of anxiety level, significant correlation was found in the six FLCAS items. For FLCAS item numbers 5 (It would not bother me to take more English classes (TA)), and FLCAS item number 25, (English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind (TA)), urban high school students reported more anxiety than rural high school students. For FLCAS item numbers 6, (During English class I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course (TA)), item 17, (I often feel like not going to my English class (TA)), item 30, (I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English (CA)) and item 33, (I get nervous when English teacher ask question which haven't prepared in advanced (FNE)), rural high school students are more anxious than urban high school students.

In case of the difference between the LLS use of the rural high school students and urban high school students, urban high school students used compensation strategies more frequently while rural high school students used memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social strategies more frequently than urban school students.

Research Question 5: What are the differences of anxiety level and LLS use between science and non-science students learning English Language?

Science students, for FLCAS item number 1, (I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class) item 24 (I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students) item 15 (I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting (CA)), item 5 (It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes), item 17 (I often feel like not going to my language class

(TA)), item 7 (I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am (FNE)), and item 30 (I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language (TA)), reported more frequently influenced than non-science students. While for FLCAS item number 8 (I am usually at ease during tests in my language class (TA)), item 18 (I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class (CA)) and item 28 (When I'm on my way to language class (TA), I feel very sure and relaxed) non-science high school students reported more frequently influenced than the science students.

As far as difference of science and non-science students is concerned in the use of LLS, compensation strategies were more frequently used by science students than non-science while, memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective and social strategies were reported more frequently used by non-science students than science students.

Research Question 6: What are the differences of anxiety level and LLS use between high proficiency and low proficiency students learning English Language?

For Low English proficiency students in FLCAS item number 1 (I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class), item 4 (It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language), item 9 (I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class), Item 29 (I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says), item 5 (It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes), item 17, (I often feel like not going to my language class), item 21 (The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get), item 7 (I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am), item 31 (I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language), item 33 (I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance), reported more frequently liable to than high English proficiency students. On the other hand, on FLCAS item number 2 (I don't worry about making mistakes in language

class), item 11 (I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes), item 22 (I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class), item 18 (I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class), item 14, (I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers), high English proficiency students reported more frequently liable than low English proficiency students.

In case of difference between LLS use, high English proficiency students and low English proficiency students, memory, cognitive, compensation and social strategies were reported more frequently used by high English proficiency students than low English proficiency students. Metacognitive and affective strategies were reported more frequently used by low English proficiency students than high English proficiency students.

5.5 Conclusion & Implications

The English language has become global language and has been a compulsory subject in the Pakistani educational system up to the Graduation level. English language is enjoying priority in the Pakistani context. It demands an effective and efficient teaching and as well as learning process. Teachers and students are paying more and more attention to English learning. In this regard, English language teaching and learning theories have been getting significance day by day. On the other hand all the research studies carried out examine the language learning strategies used by Pakistani English language learners. Very few studies have been conducted in association to individual differences. The present study is unique to investigate the interaction of anxiety on the use of LLS by Pakistani high school students having different context, public, private, rural, urban, science, non-science subjects, low proficiency and high proficiency of English language.

In the present study Pakistani high school supported use of affective strategies, social strategies, compensation strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. This employs that the English language learning context in

Pakistan should follow this pattern. Pakistani English language learners have to be provided situations to learn and apply the English language knowledge with an authentic learning context.

Pakistani English language learners did not use memory strategies. It means that memorizing English is the least preferred way. It also implies that curriculum planners should find successful and helpful learning strategies to assist Pakistani learners to have linguistics knowledge.

English teachers must provide a frank environment to the learners with ample knowledge and with its application in the surrounding. The findings support training of the language learning strategies to Pakistani school students. The study reveals that anxiety is negatively correlated with the use of language learning strategies. It is not only an internal factors but also external factors like learning strategies and the institutions as relaxed language learning situations facilitate the process of language learning (Krashen, 1982). To eliminate anxiety, an encouraging and relaxed atmosphere should be provided on priority base. Frank, supportive & cooperative role of teacher is required for language learning. A teacher must know about the feelings and emotions of their learners and should put effort to reduce the negative feelings and emotions through empathy or encouraging way.

5.6 Suggestions for the further Studies

This study has following recommendation for further research.

1. The present study was conducted in the Bahawalpur Tehsil of Pakistan. Other cities should be included to allow the findings more generalization.
2. The current study has presented the findings related to the interaction of anxiety level with the use of language learning strategies. Further studies should include the relation of anxiety to the strategies use for all the four language skills (reading, writing, listening & speaking).

3. The surveys were administered to find the interaction of anxiety with the use of language learning strategies of Pakistani high school students; public, private, urban, rural, science, non-science subjects, low proficient and high proficient English language learners. Further studies should include other personality variables such as learners' beliefs, learning styles and motivations.
4. The current study explored the interaction of anxiety on the use of language learning strategies. However, further study should be conducted which may determine the effect of training to use adequate learning strategies.
5. The present study was carried out on self-reported questionnaire to include the assessments of all participants and their proficiency. Further studies should include some other tools, like observation and interviews in addition to the questionnaire.
6. It could be replicated in different situations. In the current study learners' strategy use and anxiety level interaction was explored, providing a general idea of the relation between the two. Further studies should measure anxiety level and the extent of use of learning strategies to much narrower center of attention.
7. Further studies should explore how students can be trained to use LLS and how to minimize their foreign language anxiety to have maximum achievement.
8. It is also recommended for further studies that learner's variables (learning styles, age, self-perception, gender, language background etc) and their relationship with each other be considered.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Questionnaire # 1

Dear Participant

Please read the following information and instructions first.

- ✓ **Please indicate whether or not you believe each statement applies to you by marking (✓) only one category. Please reply all the questions, and be honest as much as you can.**

Name: _____ Class:_____ Father

Qualification:_____ Mother Qualification:_____

Subject: Science/Arts School: Govt/Private Area of the school: Rural/Urban

Result of class 9th ___/75

Questionnaire

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Instruction: Please mark(✓) the answer that best matches your feelings about each.

1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called in English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

6. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do withthe course.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

8. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

10. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over English classes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

12. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

14. I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

17. I often feel like not going to my English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

18. I feel confident when I speak in English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

21. The more I study for A English test, the more confused I get.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

25. English class moves so quickly 1 worry about getting left behind.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

26. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

28. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel sure and relaxed.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

29. I got nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when 1 speak English.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

32. 1 would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

33. 1 get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Questionnaire # 2

Please read the following sentences and answer in terms of how well the statement is true about you. Do not answer how you think you should be, or what other people do. No answer will be wrong because we just want to know the way you learn English. Five options are given below each question; tick the one that describe you most clearly.

1. *Never or almost never true of me* (means the statement is very rarely true of you)
2. *Usually not true of me* (means the statement is true less than half the time)
3. *Somewhat true of me* (means the statement is true about half the time)
4. *Usually true of me* (means the statement is true more than half the time)
5. *Always or almost always true of me* (means the statement is true of you almost always)

Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)
(Version 7.0, (c) R. Oxford, 1989)

(Memory Strategies)

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

2. I use new English words in a sentence so that I can remember them
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

3. I connect the sound and picture or image of a new English word to help me remember the word
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*

- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

5. I use rhymes to remember new English words
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

6. I use flashcards to remember new English words
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

7. I physically act out new English words
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Never Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

8. I review English lessons often
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign
   - *Never or almost never true of me*
   - *Usually not true of me*
   - *Somewhat true of me*
   - *Usually true of me*
   - *Always or almost always true of me*

(Cognitive Strategies)

10. I say or write new English words several times
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

11. I try to talk like native English speakers
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*

- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

12. I practise the sounds of English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

13. I use the English words I know in different ways
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

14. I start conversations in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to the movies spoken in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

16. I read for pleasure in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

17. I write notes, messages, letters or reports in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

18. I first skim-read an English passage (read over the passage quickly), then go back and read carefully.

- *Never or almost never true of me*
- *Usually not true of me*
- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English

- *Never or almost never true of me*
- *Usually not true of me*
- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

20. I try to find patterns in English

- *Never or almost never true of me*
- *Usually not true of me*
- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand

- *Never or almost never true of me*
- *Usually not true of me*
- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

22. I try not to translate word for word

- *Never or almost never true of me*
- *Usually not true of me*
- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English

- *Never or almost never true of me*
- *Usually not true of me*
- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

(Compensation Strategies)

24. To understand unfamiliar English words I make guesses

- *Never or almost never true of me*
- *Usually not true of me*
- *Somewhat true of me*
- *Usually true of me*

- *Always or almost always true of me*

25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

27. I read English without looking up every new word
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

29. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

(Metacognitive Strategies)

30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*

- *Usually true of me*
- *Always or almost always true of me*

32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

34. I plan my schedule so that I will have enough time to study English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

35. I look for people I can talk to in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

38. I think about my progress in learning English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*

- *Always or almost always true of me*

(Affective Strategies)

39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English
    - *Never or almost never true of me*
    - *Usually not true of me*
    - *Somewhat true of me*
    - *Usually true of me*
    - *Always or almost always true of me*

(Social Strategies)

45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again

- o *Never or almost never true of me*
  Usually not true of me
- o *Somewhat true of me*
- o *Usually true of me*
- o *Always or almost always true of me*

46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk

- o *Never or almost never true of me*
- o *Usually not true of me*
- o *Somewhat true of me*
- o *Usually true of me*
- o *Always or almost always true of me*

47. I practise English with other students

- o *Never or almost never true of me*
- o *Usually not true of me*
- o *Somewhat true of me*
- o *Usually true of me*
- o *Always or almost always true of me*

48. I ask for help from English speakers

- o *Never or almost never true of me*
- o *Usually not true of me*
- o *Somewhat true of me*
- o *Usually true of me*
- o *Always or almost always true of me*

49. I ask questions in English

- o *Never or almost never true of me*
- o *Usually not true of me*
- o *Somewhat true of me*
- o *Usually true of me*
- o *Always or almost always true of me*

50. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers

- o *Never or almost never true of me*
- o *Usually not true of me*
- o *Somewhat true of me*
- o *Usually true of me*
- o *Always or almost always true of me*

Appendix B

ANALYSIS OF PILOT STUDY

Table 1: Language learning strategy or groups of strategies do students report using most frequently.

Strategy	f	%
Memory strategy	14	14.7
Cognitive strategy	12	13.6
Compensation strategy	24	26.7
Meta Cognitive strategy	13	14.2
Affective strategy	18	19.7
Social strategy	11	11.1
Total	92	100

Table 2: Demographic Analysis

Demographic	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
Father Qualification of participants	92	4.50	2.370
Father's Profession of participants	92	2.58	1.328
Family system of Participants (Single/Joint)	92	1.74	.511
Total Number of Brother and sister	92	4.53	1.530
Birth order of the participants	92	2.52	1.763
Mother's Qualification of participants	92	3.60	2.278
Mother's Profession of participants	92	1.13	.339
Mother's tongue of participants	92	2.05	.732
Subjects of participants (Science/ Non Science)	92	1.39	.491
School of participants (Public/Private)	92	1.59	.495
School Area of participants (Rural/Urban)	92	1.34	.475

Table 3: Showing Frequency of Students' reported on six strategies use

Learning strategy	No. of students	Mean	SD	Frequency category
Memory strategies	92	2.36	0.61	Low use
Cognitive strategies	92	2.39	0.45	Low use
Compensation strategies	92	2.49	0.64	Medium use
Metacognitive strategies	92	2.13	0.73	Low use
Affective strategies	92	2.54	0.71	Medium use
Social strategies	92	2.56	0.88	Medium use

Table 4: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Memory Strategies

Item No.	**Memory Strategies**	**1***	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Frequency categories**
1	I think of relationship	33.0	51.5	6.3	6.5	2.7	2.12	1.156	Low use
2	I use new words in sentence	31.1	49.2	3.2	12.8	3.8	1.92	1.082	Low use
3	I connect the sound and image	30.5	46.8	5.7	11.6	5.5	2.03	1.021	Low use
4	I make a mental picture of the situation	27.7	54.0	6.9	7.4	4.0	2.02	1.069	Low use
5	I use rhymes	16.2	38.0	9.0	27.5	9.2	2.72	1.269	Medium use
6	I use flash cards	12.0	20.6	4.8	34.9	27.7	3.28	1.440	Medium use
7	I physically act out words	18.7	32.4	7.4	28.2	13.4	2.78	1.341	Medium use
8	I review lessons	35.3	45.6	3.6	12.2	3.2	2.12	1.185	Low use
9	I remember the location of the words on the page	37.0	48.1	4.2	7.1	3.6	2.28	1.312	Low use

Table 5: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Cognitive Strategies

Item No.	Cognitive Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
10	I say or write words several times	26.9	40.8	4.8	21.8	5.7	2.35	1.244	Low use
11	I try to talk like native speakers	32.8	41.8	4.0	12.6	8.8	2.20	1.303	Low use
12	I practice the sounds	27.1	47.5	6.5	14.3	4.6	2.03	1.053	Low use
13	I use the words in different ways	22.7	52.3	5.5	14.3	5.3	2.24	1.020	Low use
14	I start conversation	22.1	39.1	7.8	21.0	10.1	2.63	1.365	Medium use
15	I watch language shows or go to movies	32.4	33.0	4.6	16.0	14.1	2.70	1.473	Medium use
16	I read pleasure	4.5	43.3	4.6	48.4	3.2	2.01	1.191	Low use
17	I write notes, messages and letters	33.2	40.1	5.3	16.0	5.5	2.16	1.189	Low use
18	First I skim read and then read carefully	29.0	43.9	4.8	16.8	5.5	2.37	1.220	Low use
19	I look for similar words in my own language	23.7	48.5	8.4	14.9	4.4	2.34	1.207	Low use
20	I try to find patterns	18.3	52.7	10.9	14.1	3.8	2.67	2.224	Medium use
21	I find the meaning by dividing the words in parts	24.8	48.5	4.6	15.8	6.1	2.60	1.276	Medium use
22	I do not translate	11.1	34.7	6.1	29.8	18.3	2.76	1.287	Medium use
23	I make summaries of the information	21.2	47.3	10.9	15.1	5.5	2.41	1.121	Medium use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Table 6: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Compensation Strategies

Item No.	Compensation Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
24	I make guesses	25.8	57.6	6.3	7.6	2.7	2.02	.889	Low use
25	I use gestures	15.5	44.7	11.3	20.2	8.2	2.82	1.317	Medium use
26	I makeup new words	2.4	52.1	5.5	14.3	3.6	2.39	1.266	Low use
27	I read without looking up every new word	22.9	39.1	4.6	22.1	11.3	2.58	1.336	Medium use
28	I try to best guess what the other will say	13.2	43.1	13.0	23.1	7.6	2.86	1.154	Medium use
29	I use a word or phrase that means the same thing	24.6	53.2	6.5	11.1	4.8	2.32	1.249	Low use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Table 7: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Meta-cognitive Strategies

Item No.	Meta-cognitive Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
30	I try to find as many ways as I can	30.0	50.8	5.3	10.5	3.4	1.88	.888	Low use
31	I notice my mistakes and used information	44.3	45.8	2.7	4.8	2.3	1.79	.908	Low use
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking	41.1	42.0	2.9	4.2	2.7	1.78	.993	Low use
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner	49.4	42.0	3.8	3.8	1.1	1.64	.793	Low use
34	I plan my schedule so that I will have enough	21.4	34.2	7.1	29.0	8.2	2.71	1.457	Medium use
35	I look for people I can talk	24.8	43.9	8.0	15.8	7.6	2.23	1.130	Low use
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible	21.4	45.8	8.6	18.5	5.7	2.62	1.291	Medium use
37	I have clear goals for improving	31.9	49.2	5.9	9.7	3.4	2.07	1.003	Low use
38	I think about my progress in learning	25.2	40.8	10.5	17.9	5.7	2.42	1.225	Low use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Table 8: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Affective Strategies

Item No.	Affective Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
39	I try to relax whenever afraid of using	22.1	47.7	5.9	17.0	7.1	2.39	1.21	Low use
40	I encourage myself to speak	33.2	48.3	6.7	9.0	2.7	2.37	1.273	Low use
41	I give myself a reward or treat	45.8	38.4	5.0	7.8	2.9	2.28	1.225	Low use
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying	20.4	47.1	7.8	19.7	5.0	1.91	1.173	Low use
43	I write down my feelings in a language in a language learning diary	6.7	20.4	7.8	35.7	29.4	2.47	1.271	Medium use
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning	14.3	37.2	8.0	28.6	12.0	3.79	1.288	High use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths

Table 9: Frequency (%), Mean and Standard Deviation Use of Social Strategies

Item No.	Social Strategies	1*	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
45	If I do not understand	32.2	47.1	4.6	9.9	5.3	2.11	1.227	Low use
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk	31.3	43.5	6.3	12.0	6.9	2.27	1.302	Low use
47	I practice English with other students	22.5	41.0	6.5	21.4	8.6	2.53	1.288	Medium use
48	I ask for help from English speakers	26.7	42.9	4.4	16.6	9.5	2.55	1.370	Medium use
49	I ask questions in English	19.5	36.6	7.6	26.9	9.5	2.74	1.333	Medium use
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers	18.1	26.3	6.3	18.1	31.3	3.14	1.614	Medium use

Note. *1 = Never or almost never true of me; 2 = Usually not true of me; 3 = Somewhat true of me; 4 = Usually true of me; 5 = Always or almost always true of me. **The percentages (%) have been rounded to the nearest tenths.

Table 10: Mean and Standard Deviation of Communication Anxiety Level

FLCAS Item No.	Communication Anxiety	N	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
1	I never feel confidence of speaking English in class	92	2.61	1.226	Medium level
4	To not understand English teachers saying frightens me	92	2.88	1.486	Medium level
9	To speak without preparation in English class is panic for me	92	2.71	1.395	Medium level
14	I would not be nervous speaking English with native speaker	92	2.91	1.430	Medium level
15	I get upset to not understand my correction in English by teacher	92	2.52	1.284	Medium level
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class	92	2.47	1.344	Medium level
24	I feel very self conscious while speaking English in front of other	92	2.08	1.099	Low level
27	I get nervous when I speak in English class	92	3.04	1.306	Medium level
29	I get nervous when I don't understand every word of teacher	92	2.44	1.318	Low level
30	I become overwhelmed by English rules of language	92	2.46	1.333	Medium level
32	I would feel comfortable among native speakers of English	92	2.87	1.313	Medium level

Table 11: Mean and Standard Deviation of Test Anxiety Level

FLCAS Item No.	Test Anxiety	N	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
3	I never feel confidence of speaking English in class	92	3.05	1.503	Medium level
5	To not understand English teachers saying frightens me	92	2.22	1.356	Low level
6	I think other things during English class	92	3.56	1.385	High level
8	I am usually at ease during English test	92	2.05	1.162	Low level
10	I worry about the failing result in English	92	3.14	1.621	Medium level
11	I don't understand why people get so upset over English class	92	2.32	1.497	Low level
12	In English class I get so nervous I forget things	92	3.31	1.444	Medium level
16	If I am well prepared in English class, I feel anxious about it	92	3.52	1.415	High level
17	I often feel like not going in my English	92	4.04	1.278	High level
20	I can feel my heart pounding while going in English class	92	2.99	1.386	Medium level
21	The more I study English the more I get confuse	92	3.97	1.793	High level
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare for English class	92	2.02	1.181	Low level
25	English class moves so quickly I worry to be left behind	92	2.98	1.451	Medium level
26	I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than any other	92	3.83	2.706	High level
28	When I am on my way to English class I feel sure and relaxed	92	2.18	1.247	Low level

Table 12: Mean and Standard Deviation of Fear of Negative Evaluation Level

FLCAS Item No.	Fear of Negative Evaluation	N	Mean	SD	Frequency categories
2	I don't care about making mistakes in English class	92	2.93	1.39	Medium level
7	I keep thinking that other students are better in English	92	2.68	1.35	Medium level
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class	92	2.99	1.43	Medium level
19	I am afraid that English teacher is ready to correct my mistakes	92	2.66	1.34	Medium level
23	I always feel that other students speak better than me	92	2.62	1.37	Medium level
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at my English speaking	92	3.06	1.45	Medium level
33	I get nervous when the English teacher ask questions not prepared	92	2.51	1.31	Medium level